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REQUIRED READING FOR THE CHAUTAUQUA LITERARY AND SCIENTIFIC CIRCLE.



THE QUARRY TEAM.

From a painting by Stanhope A. Forbes, A. R. A.

THE PAINTER'S ART IN ENGLAND.*

BY HORACE TOWNSEND.

IN these closing years of the nineteenth century when art criticism has arrogated to itself, at the hands of some of its professors, the exactitude and *pari passu*¹ the diffuseness of treatment hitherto more associated with the sciences, it would be

difficult in the space of an ordinary magazine article adequately to set forth the history and merits of even one of the many schools into which modern English art finds itself subdivided. It is perhaps not necessary, however, to employ the exhaustive diligence and wealth of critical diction which such masters as Ruskin and Morelli set the fashion of employing to give a com-

* The Notes on the Required Readings in THE CHAUTAUQUAN will be found following those on the books of the course, in the C. L. S. C. Department of the magazine.

prehensive view of modern English art.

So it must be my excuse if I attempt to compress into the proverbial nutshell my views of its more recent developments that, confined to generalities as such a review must be, it may at least suggest to some of its readers certain lines of inquiry which they may follow up with advantage.

Divorced almost completely as the pictorial art of our century is from the national life, when we consider the legitimately close and intimate union which existed between them in most countries three centuries ago they yet bear to each other a more or less unacknowledged relation which renders it difficult perfectly to comprehend the one without a certain acquaintanceship with the other.

Thus a close regard of the art of to-day as of that of the Renaissance or to take an even more striking example that of the Hellenes, must proceed on distinctly sociological, as apart from purely esthetic lines. Bearing this in mind it would be interesting, if my space allowed me, to trace the ethical causes which intensifying the geographical insularity of Great Britain had led her at the beginning of the present century to a degree of isolation in regard to art as well as to commerce which was probably without its parallel in Europe. That she was forced to seek her own artistic salvation and to a certain extent was successful in the quest, ought to be accounted to her

for esthetic righteousness, and due appreciation of this will help to relegate to the Gehenna² of exploded myths the commonplace and banal³ superstition that the Anglo-Saxon race is contemptibly inferior to those of Latin origin in artistic appreciation and creative power.

One has only to glance backward and see how the sacred fire was decorously but none the less reverentially handed on by Reyn-

olds, Romney, Gainsborough, and their followers to the hands almost touching our own, of Turner and Constable. It was indeed by the last named fanned into so dazzling a blaze that its light penetrated through the murky fogs of our own island and became a beacon by means of which one great French school was helped to attain the secure harbor of pre-eminence in landscape art. It is true that with the deaths of these great masters English art



FATIDICA.

From a painting by Sir Frederic Leighton, P. R. A.

seemed to fall into a state of apathy and decline which for nearly a generation threatened more closely to approach annihilation.

The rampant commercialism which was not the product but the producer of the so-called Manchester School with its deification of the materialistic and its middle-class contempt of the idealistic, seemed to swamp for a time all that spoke for light and culture in regard to pictorial achievement.

It must be remembered, that it is a fact, though one that is often lost sight of, that

the measure of the artist when schools and not individuals are considered, is to be taken by that of his patron. It was for want of

heads we espied upon the walls a collection of ingeniously ill-painted, pictorial anecdote, pseudo-biblical reminiscence, and impossible



THE ORDEAL OF PURITY.

From a painting by G. H. Boughton, A. R. A.

culture and sympathetic patronage that English art of the last generation suffered. From the court (and courts, it must be borne in mind, were, even so late as the eighteenth century, the hothouses of artistic genius) English art has, since the advent of the Georges, been an outcast and never so much so as during the reign of Victoria.

Nor with one or two exceptions have the great aristocratic families of our day followed in any worthy way the traditions of their order in regard to the sympathetic encouragement of the artistically meritorious. The sudden growth of large fortunes at the hands of self-made men was responsible for a body of patrons who worked incalculable harm to English art. They demanded vulgarity of sentiment, meretricious technique, and anecdotal banality, and I must regretfully own that their demands were not unsatisfied.

A quarter of a century ago those of us who were young enough to be enthusiastic, groaned in spirit as we wandered with the well dressed and snugly respectable crowd which thronged the rooms of the Royal Academy during each succeeding May. Over the complacently bobbing

were produced by men who at least knew how to paint.

Of course even in England, albeit sunk in obscurity more or less profound, so far as popular plaudits make fame, a painter was here and there to be found who could really paint as well as imagine pictures. Mason, for instance, sneered at and passed by in his lifetime, but whose pictures when they now reach the auction room are greedily striven for by the descendants of those who despised them; Walker, who, had he lived

landscape which harmonized curiously with the Philistines who bowed the knee in their own temple dedicated to their own uses. Color was lent to what I have referred to as the exploded idea, namely, that our English race is wanting in art instinct, by the remembrance that but a short day's journey distant was to be found in the Champs Elysées⁴ a similar national assemblage, concerning which, though keener observers than we might declare that academic technicality seemed to be its be all and end all, we could truthfully assert this much, that nine out of ten examples



THE TEMPTATION OF SIR PERCIVAL.

From a painting by Arthur Hacker, A. R. A.



A LADY IN BROWN.

From a painting by J. Lavery.

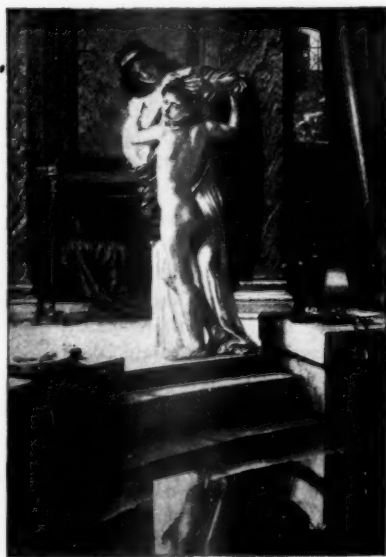
and ripened, might have developed into a great painter; Rossetti, whose pictures despite their glaring technical defects had each one of them more poetic imagination than could be found in a roomful of academic masterpieces; Watts, who, one must not forget, was at the plenitude of those superb powers which bring him into worthy competition with the great masters of the past, at the very period when English art was at its lowest ebb.

These and other individualities there were, but I want to insist upon the fact that just because they were individualities and the founders of no schools of their own, England had fallen far behind in the race for artistic pre-eminence. Only one worthy attempt had been made to found what may be called a school and it is remarkable, in view of the earnest devotion of some of its members, how slight an impress was made upon their time by the Pre-Raphaelite brotherhood. It is nearly half a century ago since they linked themselves together and yet it is only in our own day that their

most faithful lingering adherent, Burne-Jones, has secured public recognition. The greatest of them all in the person of Sir John Millais fell away from the grace of their professions very early in the day and was seduced by popularity and the Royal Academy in combination into an almost entire abandonment of his early faith.

Apart from this we have had in England until the last decade no genuine art movement which has affected more than a mere handful of students. It was from across the Channel that the Perseus⁵ who was to deliver English art from the fettering chains of fell tradition which bound her Andromeda-like to the barren rocks of prettiness and conventionality, was to wing his flight to us.

Until our students began to flock in increasing numbers some twenty years ago to the ateliers⁶ of Paris no united movement toward light and knowledge had been made. Here and there some individual influences may have been exerted but even these had been of a shadowy nature and had often sprung not from our own race but from foreigners domiciled among us. It was Tadema, a Dutchman, for instance who freed us from



IDLE FEARS.

From a painting by E. J. Poynter, R. A.

what has been happily termed "the banality of composition," that unnatural grouping of the figures of a picture with slavish regard to the boundary lines of the frame. It was Whistler, an American, who taught us among other important lessons the necessity of the effacement of details and the accentua-

or individuals forms the guide of the younger painters of our generation.

It is true that the great names in England, names that are known to the public at large as well as to the artistic world, are still in the very nature of things those of the men who worked out unaided their own way to



AUGUST BLUE.

From a painting by H. S. Tuke.

tion of the main thematic⁷ feature in a picture.

But the larger and broader changes have been brought about by French teaching, teaching which in many cases has been bettered by those instructed but which nevertheless had its initiation in the city of Corot and Millet, of Degas and Monet.⁸

Into the details of this movement it is impossible for me to go with anything approaching fullness, but I may at least point out that the influence exerted by Paris was of a dual nature. First was that of the school which has been nicknamed that of the "Pleine Airists"⁹ and second that of the Impressionists. That then there is more hope for English art to-day, that among the younger men there are many for whom an enduring reputation may safely be predicted, is due to the fact upon which I am insisting, that a school or schools in place of an individual

salvation before what almost may be called the period of the *fin de siècle* renaissance arrived, but it is at least hopeful for the future of the art loving public as well as for that of all art workers that of the reputations which were in all men's mouths in the early seventies only those have endured which rested on a surer foundation than the debased taste of that Philistine epoch. Names such as those of the late Edwin Long, R. A., or the present W. P. Frith, R. A., are rapidly assuming an interest that is merely historic, while however much we may differ as to our regard of the true principles of artistic achievement from such renowned personages as Sir Frederick Leighton, P. R. A., Sir John Millais, R. A., and Mr. Edward J. Poynter, R. A., we can at least accord to them a full measure of respectful admiration, and this not merely for what they might have been under other conditions but for

what they actually are under their own.

In the first name English art has a worthy and a dignified official head. A scholar as well as an artist, though he has condescended to an irritatingly mechanical perfection of finish and redundancy of insignificant detail, he has often expressed many beautiful ideas with unexceptionable taste, and year after year sees us the richer by such embodiments of courtly sensuousness as the "Fatidica" of the present year, the "Daphnephoria," "The Music Lesson," and the "Phryne" of other years.

To Sir John Millais I have already made reference and would fain linger over that unique study of artistic temperament which would set itself to trace his esthetic and psychological contrarieties. These it is which have made of the poet-painter of the "Isabella" or the "Christ in the House of His Parents" of the early fifties, the producer of such middle-class triumphs as the "Cherry Ripe" or the "Bubbles" of the nineties and which yet allow him from time to time to silence his detractors by such *tours de force*¹⁰ as the magnificent "Souvenir of Velasquez."



THE LADY OF SHALOTT.

From a painting by J. W. Waterhouse, A. R. A.



THE CHILD ENTHRONED.

From a painting by T. C. Gotch.

In view of the fact that his election to the directorship of the National Gallery and of the consequent likelihood that his work in future will be rather critical than creative it is pleasant to record that in his principal picture, "Idle Fears," of the present year, Mr. Edward Poynter reminds us of those days—now twenty-five years ago—when by his picture of "Israel in Egypt" he promised to take that place among the masters of his craft, which in the interim he has failed to exactly attain.

Many as are the artistic sins which are to be laid to the charge of the last half century we can forgive them all when we reflect that it has given us Mr. Watts, who will probably in years to come be looked upon as the *great* painter of our generation. Out of accord as the didacticism which underlies so much of his work may be with our present esthetic notions it is yet good for us to remember that Mr. Watts has always borne in mind that he is a painter first and a preacher only in a subordinate degree. The magnitude of his output has only been equaled by its marvelously consistent quality.

Mr. Watts has held himself above pretiness, triviality, and mere popularity and his reward, greater than those ephemeral titles and honors which he has more than once declined to accept, is that every year has seen his reputation burn with a clearer and still further-reaching light, and that whenever artists are gathered together his name is spoken with reverence and esteem. That at an age when unfortunately for us he must be nearing the end of a glorious career he is able to offer us such work as appeared in this year's Academy is proof, if proof were needed, of the inexhaustible fertility of imagination, the loftiness of conception, and the glorious sense of color which erstwhile gave us "Love and Death," "Love and Life," "Fata Morgana" and "The Three Goddesses."

I have left to the last my necessarily hasty particularization of the members of those two new schools to which I have made reference as containing the hopes of our generation. It is to such men as Stanhope Forbes, A. R. A., Adrian Stokes, H. S. Tuke, and George Clausen, R. A., who are all in their separate ways lineal descendants of the "Pleine Airists" that we look for the enduring work of the future, while such latter-day idealists as Arthur Hacker, A. R. A., T. C. Gotch, J. W. Waterhouse, A. R. A., G. H. Boughton, A. R. A., and E. A. Abbey are equally worthy of record.

The two I have last mentioned are Americans and it must not be forgotten that Mr. Sargent, who bids fair to be the greatest portraitist whose works have been hung upon the walls of the Academy since those of its first president found a place thereon, is also a gift to us from the United States.

Among the younger and more pugnacious Impressionist school I may mention at random the names of Walter Sickert, Mr. Furse, and J. Lavery, the two latter of whom exhibited notable portraits in this year's Academy. These and the other names are selected but at random, for a score of others might with equal justice have been included in my list. I cannot help feeling, however, that without that detailed appreciation which space denies me to accord to them, names will merely represent names and nothing more.

It would be a pleasure to enter more into detail concerning the works of these younger schools which are gradually making their effect felt upon our national art; to consider the work of that younger school of sculptors headed by Alfred Gilbert, A. R. A., which includes such promising young men as George Frampton, A. R. A., and Onslow Ford, A. R. A.; and further to glance at that school of decorative art which has enabled England to show herself during our own generation, in this regard, at least, the peer of all the world.



SOCIAL LIFE IN ENGLAND IN THE NINETEENTH CENTURY.

BY JOHN ASHTON.

THE end of the eighteenth century left England very prosperous, although highly taxed for war, which, also, drew considerably upon her population. For the navy, this was met by impressment; for the army, high bounty was given for volunteers, and compulsory service by all who had no ostensible means of living, as well as being recruited, in a small degree, from the ranks of bankrupt debtors, who were thus released from jail. War was a terrible drain. There were wars with France, both under the Republic and Napoleon; while at the same time, war was being carried on with Holland, Spain, and America—nay, more or less, the whole civilized western world was against England.

This lasted till 1815, and then "the land had rest forty years"; which time raised her to a very high pitch of prosperity—in my opinion, her apogee.¹ The land was highly cultivated, artificial manures came into use, the chemistry of the soil was taught, steam cultivation introduced, until it became a necessity for every farm to have its steam engine. The condition of the agricultural laborer improved hugely, better homes were built for him, wages were advanced, he took to wearing broadcloth, had good clothes for Sunday and holidays, and the smock frock, a garment handed down from Saxon times, was gradually discontinued, until it has, now, almost entirely disappeared. Capital was embarked in agriculture, small farms made into large ones, hedges grubbed up, and ditches filled, while the soil was thoroughly drained by means of pipes.

Then came the repeal of the Corn Laws in 1846, opening the markets of the world to compete with the British farmer: wheat came from Russia, the United States, Canada, Australia, and even from India. Frozen meat came to finish him, and, at the present time, the acreage of land gone out of cultivation is simply appalling—nor is it possible

to reinstate it for many years. This has reduced incomes, which, naturally, affects all trades and professions. Then, too, the attractions of the towns, with their lights, amusements, and the prospect of higher wages, draw away all the young men from the country villages: the towns have more labor than is wanted, much misery is created through lack of employment, and the country is starved of its natural population.

From the opening of the Stockton and Darlington Railway in 1825, it has been a race to cover England with a network of iron rails, a fact now nearly accomplished. The facilities of carriage afforded by those railways, in conjunction with the introduction of the steamboat, has led to the exceeding development of coal and iron fields, and manufactories—of the latter, perhaps, to too great an extent; and, with the advent of peace, the natural fertility of the English began to assert itself, until, by very force of quantity, they were obliged to leave their native land, and found homes for themselves elsewhere. Luckily, the world is large, and other lands were crying aloud for inhabitants. The number of millions of Englishmen and women who have emigrated, will never be known. The United States and Canada received them gladly, while the vast continent of Australia and the islands of New Zealand were all their own. And yet, at home, the population has been more than doubled, while Great Britain has not increased an acre. The first census, of 1801, admittedly faulty, gives the number of inhabitants as 16,345,646, while the last, of 1891, is 37,880,764.

This, in spite of the numbers employed on railways, and who are in the army, navy, and police, leaves too large a margin in the labor market, and efforts are being made, by trades unions, to diminish the hours of labor, and thus afford employment for more. Unfortunately, these trades unions have

developed into organizations which exercise the grossest tyranny over the workingman, striving, with might and main, to prevent all who do not belong to them, from obtaining employment. It is probable, however, that the common sense of the majority will in time modify this evil—but at present they have been too much petted by a political party, in order to secure their votes, and they have not had time thoroughly to consider the question. Several *bona fide*² workingmen have been elected members of Parliament, and, with one or two exceptions, have shown themselves good and capable men. Parliament, or rather the representation thereto, has been thrice reformed in this century, in 1832, 1867-8, and 1884-5, each time becoming more democratic.

Railways and steamboats have revolutionized and entirely altered the characteristics of the middle classes, and deprived them of a great deal of their insularity. Visits to different parts of Europe are within the reach of most—while a trip to America, or even around the world, is a portion of the education of those who can afford it. Cheap trips to different parts of Great Britain are largely patronized by the lower, middle, and working classes, and must tend to expand their ideas and enlarge their views. All traveling is fairly cheap to what it used to be in the old coaching days, and the roads are, as a rule, irreproachable; so much so that they are daily gone over by thousands of cycles, an invention of these latter days, of immense importance to young men, keeping them away from many temptations, gaining for them health and a knowledge of their beautiful country.

Increase of wealth, and intercommunication with other countries, have brought with them a demand for luxuries unknown in the commencement of the century, notably in eating and drinking: the plain meals of our grandfathers being replaced by repasts worthy of Lucullus,³ partaken of in palaces, though bearing the names of hotels and restaurants. The dinner tables of ordinary folk are made pretty with silver, cut glass, fruit and flowers, and it is considered

an insult to give any guest wine that is not of *premier cru*.⁴ The markets are ransacked for fish, game, and fruits of the rarest, and, as to the price asked for some of the latter, I may say that I have seen, in Covent Garden Market, pears at 18 guineas⁵ a dozen.

Lower in the social scale, food is very plentiful and cheap. Beef from the vast continent of America, mutton and lamb from Australia and New Zealand, canned meats and fish, fruit from America, Australia, and the Cape of Good Hope; pineapples, bananas, grapes, peaches, and apricots, once the luxury of the rich, are now sold on barrows in the streets, and, with the exception of the very poor, these things which were unattainable by their fathers, are now within the reach of all. Of the very poor, especially among workwomen, the favorite drink is tea, which can be obtained from 1s to 2s per pound. Of late years a complete revolution has taken place in the public taste for this article. China, which, ten years ago, used to supply 90 per cent of the tea drunk in Great Britain, now sends only 30 per cent, the Indian and Cingalese teas having supplanted it in popular favor.

This increased luxury, which is not confined to the vulgarities of feeding, necessitates an increased income; and I regret to say this is generally sought for in speculation. How to get the largest income from one's capital, is the constant thought of those whose style of living is scarcely consonant with "the sweet simplicity of three per cents." The Stock Exchange, which, in former years, had comparatively small premises, near the Royal Exchange, where a legitimate business was done in buying and selling stocks and shares, is now an enormous place, with an equally enormous quantity of brokers attached to it, whose principal business is making speculative purchases and sales for their numerous clients, who are of all sorts and conditions. Certainly, the increased number of ventures dangled before their eyes, railways, mines, limited companies, etc., accounts for an increase of brokers; but, outside them, not

admitted to the Exchange, are an army of illegitimate dealers.

But if in the eighteenth century England was debauched by lotteries it is now equally so by the curse of betting on horse racing, a vice which enthralls both high and low, but which, licensed and legal at Tattersall's,⁶ is *supposed* to be illegal and immoral, and therefore punishable, in a lower grade of society. Nay, the sport itself has altered; no runners can be found for queen's cups of £100, and these prizes have been transferred to agriculture—and prizes are now given of the enormous sum of £10,000. Card playing, too, is rife, especially among the upper classes; and the Stock Exchange, betting and gambling, account for the many noble names that of late years have been dragged through the mire of the Bankruptcy Court. As regards morality, I do not suppose that we are worse than our forefathers, but the ease with which divorce can be obtained, and the publicity given both to those and police cases, tend to render people more familiar with them, and are likely to put into the minds of the young, thoughts and feelings which would better not be there.

Outdoor sports have made a marked improvement in the physique of the youth of both sexes, in this generation. Horse riding used to be the chief exercise, and cricket was almost the only outdoor game played in the early century; but as railways multiplied and people began to live in the suburbs near or among green fields, cricket clubs sprung up as if by magic, and now there is not a village or a district, not a bank or large house of business, that does not boast its cricket club. Cycling, rowing, swimming, football, foot racing, and athletics generally, are in high favor; while the upper part of the silver Thames is a "garden of girls."

In the last generation young ladies walked with mincing gait; otherwise they would have been considered inelegant, while it was the proper thing in society for them to have very slender appetites at dinner, for which they made up by a hearty meal at luncheon. Now-a-days a good healthy girl is a match

for most men at walking, and she is not ashamed to show that she possesses a good appetite. During the latter part of this century, woman has had many careers thrown open to her, and, as far as I know, her only disabilities now are the pulpit, the law, the public service, except the post office, and the Legislature, for which, at present, she has no vote.

All education has vastly improved, but it is only during the last thirty or forty years that great strides have been made. Latin and Greek are not the only things taught, even in public schools—modern languages, science, and even technical classes competing with them. This, doubtless, is much owing to the public service, the army and navy, being thrown open, and entrance to them being attainable only by competitive examination. A grand work has been done among the poor and lower classes, first by our voluntary, and next by our board schools, at the latter of which, attendance, although compulsory, is free of charge; and in which very much more is taught than reading, writing, and arithmetic. In fact, at this time, a poor man's son can receive an education for nothing, or by payment of nominal fees in the evenings, that the son of a peer could not have had at the commencement of the century for any amount of money. The technical schools are doing well and are training thousands of young workmen to do good work, thoroughly and conscientiously. Free libraries, too, are a boon vouchsafed in this *fin de siècle*.⁷

Music has become more popular than ever, and, thanks to the schools of music scattered all over England, the pupils are better trained and taught than was possible at any previous time. Good concerts, such as the Monday Popular, the Handel Festivals at the Crystal Palace, or some extra performance at the Albert Hall, are certain to be crowded, and that, too, by a very discriminating audience. The nineteenth century may be said to be that of opera, for, although there was opera of a sort, both in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, the modern opera could hardly be considered to have started before Spohr's

"Jessonda," or Weber's "Der Freischütz" in 1813, or his "Oberon" in 1826. After them came Auber, Rossini, Bellini, Donizetti, Verdi, Meyerbeer, Wagner, and Gounod: while *opera bouffe* may be said to have begun with Sullivan's "H. M. S. Pinafore." As an aristocratic amusement, the opera is dead in England—the high prices paid to *prima donnas* killed it, and they were so exacting, at last, that no management could stand it. It now survives in a mixture of Italian, German, and English works, at popular prices.

At the commencement of the nineteenth century there were but three theaters; at present, counting both sides of the Thames, there are forty. It goes without saying that all these do not pay, and it is equally clear that there cannot be a sufficient supply of good actors for them; nor will there ever be, so long as the practice (fatal to good acting) of long runs is continued. In the old days three pieces were given every night, and the performances were changed two or three times a week, by which means the actor played many parts and received a theatrical education unattainable at the present time. In addition to the theaters, Londoners have provided for their amusement twenty-five music halls, in which variety entertainments are given, some of which are now developing into short stage plays. In these halls the frequenters have full liberty to drink and smoke while listening to decidedly third-rate music, or witnessing the feats of conjurors and acrobats.

There are, also, thirty exhibitions, among which may be mentioned the British Museum—to whose wonderful library the literature of England is so much indebted—the Natural History and South Kensington Museums, the Tower of London, National Gallery, National Portrait Gallery, Colonial Institute, Crystal Palace, and all of them well worth a visit. Every city and town is, in respect to theaters, music halls, and exhibitions, a small copy of the metropolis. The South Kensington Museum has traveling exhibitions which visit the chief cities in England.

There are numerous picture galleries in London belonging to the different societies

and to dealers; but the place to study contemporary English art is at the Exhibition of the Royal Academy (instituted in 1768) which is opened on the first Monday in May, and closed the first Monday in August in each year. For the first half of the century, English art was at a decidedly low ebb, but it received a waking up about 1850, when a few young artists, Millais [mīl-lā'], Dante Rossetti, Holman Hunt, and others (called the Preraphaelite School), began to draw and paint carefully. The influence of this school has been immense, and although English figure painting as a whole cannot compare with the French and German schools, in landscape we are second to none. In sculptors, our greatest, in this age, have been Flaxman and Gibson, but as there is little scope for idealism in England the principal work for the sculptor is the manufacture of statues of deceased worthies.

The literature of England of this century belongs to the world, and has been sufficiently appreciated; but for the grains of wheat there are bushels of chaff. As education has progressed, a *cacoëthes scribendi*¹⁰ seems to have come to almost every man and woman, and the literary market is flooded with rubbish which, although lasting its brief hour, is unfortunately replaced by the efforts of never-ending recruits.

English people are very proud of their newspaper press, which, with very few exceptions, is free from vulgarity and scurrility. No exact information as to the number of the periodical literature can ever be obtained, for some papers have but an ephemeral existence; but the following is a list of newspapers taken from "The Newspaper Press Directory" for 1894:

England:		
London	449	
Provinces	1,332	1,781
Wales	101	
Scotland	220	
Ireland	166	
British Isles	23	2,291

The magazines now in course of publication, including the quarterly reviews, number 2,061, of which more than 471 are of a decidedly religious character.

But it is in practical science that this wonderful century has been most prodigal with its marvels. Electricity has been made subject to man, and has, for his benefit, been made to yield light, heat, motive power, the telegraph and telephone; photography has revealed worlds in the heavens, invisible to the most powerful telescopes; coal has been so treated as to give not only oil and gas for illuminating purposes, but colors more brilliant than had ever been conceived before, and, also, very many scents; new metals have been discovered; and no man can catalogue the list of scientific marvels propounded in this century in England. Even as I write, Lord Rayleigh has communicated to the British Association for the Advancement of Science his discovery of a new component part of the atmosphere, in the shape of an inert gas, not yet named, whose existence he not only proves, but of which he has secured about half a pint.

Of mechanical science, in the beginning of the century there was but very little, and that little has had to be superseded. Whitworth, with his gauges, screw threads, and magnificent tools, which have been the means of turning out of our workshops the perfections of machinery, Nasmyth, whose steam hammer has enabled us to forge such huge masses of iron as never before were dreamed of, and Bessemer, whose conversion of crude iron into mild steel has wrought a revolution in the iron trade, are men of whom any country might be proud. But it is impossible to keep a monopoly on anything, and if England invented and taught, she had plenty of copyists and pupils. Similar machinery will produce similar results in every country, and many nations are now producing articles formerly exported from England, to the great detriment of her trade. Take one example only—the cotton trade. Machinery has been exported and cotton is now made where it is grown. Cotton mills are all over the globe, and, I believe, the largest mill in the world is in Russia. New coal fields, too, are being found and worked which will destroy England's supremacy in this direction.

There is no doubt that from these causes the trade and commerce of England must decrease, and this is being rapidly helped on by the very class who mostly benefit by it—the workingman—whose demands for higher wages and shorter working hours are yearly increasing. Add to this, free trade, without reciprocity from other nations, and it does not need a prophet to foretell a national decadence.

Perhaps the most noticeable physical social improvement of the century in England is in the streets, not of the metropolis only, but of every city and town. New roads and streets are always made broad, as is by law provided. Where, as in the early eighteen hundreds, the streets were either unpaved or done with cobble stones, with wide kennels on either side and pools all over the road, and the sidewalks were mostly made with kidney flint stones set on end: now, streets are beautifully and evenly paved with cubes of granite, wood (some of it coming from Australia), or asphalt, and drained to perfection, so that storm water runs away at once; while the sidewalks are made of large smooth slabs of stone, guarded at the edges by massive granite curbing. Throughout the country the roads are either made of crushed flint stones, or are Macadamized¹¹ with broken granite.

The vehicles in those streets are all of this century. Gone are the sedan chairs, the hackney coaches, and the mail coaches, and in their stead are the omnibus (the first of which ran on July 4, 1829), which has been so improved as to bear no resemblance to its progenitor; the cab (diminutive of cabriolet) introduced in 1823, but unlike the present Hansom, with its well upholstered interior, with looking-glasses, India rubber tires, nickel fittings, and self-closing doors; the four-wheeled cab, the somewhat disreputable descendant of the old hackney coach; and, not to be forgotten, is the tram car, the latest addition to our vehicular traffic, with its metallic road. Vastly improved, too, are the private carriages, models of elegance and lightness, while the eyes of preceding centuries would open wide with astonishment, could they behold the enor-

mous shire-horses, having nearly the strength and size of elephants. Courtesy itself, to strangers, is the policeman, the universal referee, who will tell you unerringly your direction, or what omnibus is suitable for you, or will with equal calmness stop an incipient brawl, or delay the whole traffic of a busy road in order to escort a little child across it.

Vastly improved, too, are the shops. When one is pulled down in a good thoroughfare a miniature palace is built, while the clubs, banks, insurance offices, and public buildings are often very fine specimens of architecture. The improvement made in the manufacture of glass no longer restricts its size, the small panes having given place to huge plates, perfectly pellucid. Instead of the old, smoky, flickering oil lamps, we have the shops and streets brilliantly lit by gas (first used in London for street lighting in August, 1807) or electricity. Trees are planted wherever the roads and sidewalks are wide enough, and the overhead electric wires are, as rapidly as possible, being buried under foot. Instead of rows of houses all one pattern and all drearily ugly, there is some attempt at diversity of architecture, which is particularly and pleasantly noticeable in the countless suburban villas; while the modern innovation in England of "the flat" must not pass unnoticed.

The interiors of the houses, in sanitation, decoration, and furniture, have vastly improved. This century is the century of the bath in England. Previously, I will not say it was not in existence, but its use was not universal. Now the very pauper, before he can get a night's lodging in the casual ward of a workhouse, must have a bath. Public baths and wash-houses are in every parish, and in every house, say, of £40 annual rent and upward, built during the last twenty years, there is a bathroom, besides the "tubs" in different bedrooms. Wall decorations are varied, according to fancy and means, but, undoubtedly, the wall papers of 1801 bear no comparison with those of 1894, in beauty of design. Parquet floors,¹¹ or even borders, are improvements; and as to

furniture, the improvement in it in the same time is marvelous.

In the early century, there was but one wood used for furniture, and that was mahogany. The chairs and sofas, or couches, were very solid, very heavy, and very ugly, with scarcely a curve in them. To add to their ugliness, they were upholstered with black horsehair cloth, which when a bit worn was 'not pleasant to sit upon. Bell ropes, which had a knack of coming down when pulled, have given way to the neat and effective electric bell. The Englishman still clings to his open fireplace; the little starved things which emitted no heat have given place to others constructed on more economical and scientific principles, and which do warm the room; gas and electricity have entirely superseded the early century candle, which required constant snuffing.

The sanitary arrangements of the house were very unsatisfactory, and, undoubtedly led to much illness. The first step in the right direction was to connect every house with a main sewer, but we are only just awaking to the danger of old and faulty work in this department, and proper connections are enforced by law. In case of epidemics, it is compulsory to separate the sick from those that are well, and for that purpose large hospitals and ships are provided.

But what an Englishman looks at with some pride is the number of hospitals and charities which have sprung up spontaneously within the century, all either endowed by wealthy patrons or supported by voluntary contributions. There is not a disease but what has its special hospital; there are homes for convalescents, institutions for the helpless, cripples and incurables, the deaf, the dumb, and the blind, orphanages, waifs and strays, and helps for all kinds of erring humanity. But the millions of money thus spent fade beside the sums spent in restoring old cathedrals and churches, and building and endowing new churches and chapels. We have often admired and wondered at the munificence of our forefathers in this respect, but it pales before that of this age.

Free libraries, open places for recreation and relaxation, technical schools, literary institutions, have been given prodigally.

Yet money has not been spared from social enjoyment. Clubs, originated in the previous century, are no longer confined to the rich, and they are multiplying rapidly; not only the genial social club, but that not altogether unmixed blessing—the political club.

Dress, in this century, has had many mutations, although male costume has not suffered so much as female. This latter has been mainly influenced by the fashions obtaining in France; so that we find during the Consulate¹² and Empire our ladies copied their French sisters in having very short, or no waists, and very tight skirts. As time went on, the opposite extreme was reached, and waists as long and as stiff as those of the time of Elizabeth were in vogue, with the *gigot*¹⁴ sleeve lately revived. About 1850, crinoline came into fashion, and had a long run, until about 1865, when the fair ones went to the opposite extreme, and the "eel skin" dress was in vogue; since then,

there have been no very special vagaries in dress. The most extraordinary headdress was the "Oldenburgh poke," introduced here by the duchess of Oldenburgh (sister to the Emperor Nicholas of Russia) in 1814. This had a very high crown, to accommodate the very high tortoise shell combs then in use. Perhaps the next eccentricity in female head-gear was the "spoon bonnet," coeval with crinoline. Hair has been dressed in all ways, the ugliest being the "chignon" of 1865.

Men's dress, ordinarily, was quiet; the round hat came in with the century, first of felt, then of beaver, and, lastly, of silk; and this latter, for our sins, fashion compels us still to wear. Coats have been tight, loose, long, and short; and, for the legs, we have had breeches and stockings, tight pantaloons, and trousers (which came in about 1815) so wide as to be called "peg-tops," and as tight as those that used to be worn by grooms and other horsey people; but England is said to set the fashion for gentlemen's attire, throughout the world.

THE FRENCH CHAMBERS.*

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WHILE it is not strictly necessary that the Legislature of the French Republic should be treated so fully from the point of view of history as the British Parliament or the German Federal Council, still we must, in this case also, have regard to the immediate, if not the remote, history of the genesis of the bodies which compose it. We must at least go back to the Convention which formed and established the constitution of the present Republic.

This Convention sprang from the necessities of France after the overthrow of the Napoleonic empire by the battle of Sedan in September of 1870. The capture of the Emperor Napoleon, and the rejection of the regency of the Empress Eugénie by the im-

perial Legislature, were followed by the organization of a provisory government by a set of men who simply assumed power, and to whose usurpation the people temporarily submitted from the necessity of the case. This submission was secured, however, most largely by the declaration that the new government was only provisory, and by the issue of a call to the people of France to elect by universal suffrage members to a constituent convention, into whose hands the provisory government would immediately surrender its powers.

The occupation of a large part of the territory of France, however, by the German armies, and the internal disturbances inevitable to a provisory government delayed the elections of the members of the Convention until February of 1871. After the

*Special Course for C. L. S. C. Graduates.

capture of the city of Paris by the German forces on January 28, 1871, the king of Prussia insisted upon the immediate holding of these elections, in order that France might furnish herself with a government with which a valid treaty of peace might be made. Gambetta was inclined to postpone them indefinitely in favor of the continuance of his own dictatorship, by means of which he still hoped to unite the power of France against the invaders; but the triumph of the German arms and the pressure brought upon Gambetta, both by the king of Prussia and by the branch of the provisory government which had remained in Paris after Gambetta went to Tours, finally moved Gambetta to order the elections. He undertook to disfranchise the Bonapartists in the elections. The king of Prussia, however, put a stop to this by declaring that he would make no treaty with any body that did not represent the entire population of France.

The elections were at last held February 8, 1871, on the basis of the universal suffrage of all male citizens twenty-one years of age; and the persons chosen met in convention at Bordeaux on the thirteenth day of the same month.

The first and most pressing business of this body was to reorganize government in France and treat with the Germans for their retirement from French territory. It immediately elected Thiers as president of the Convention and chief of the administration, and exercised under this form of organization all governmental power for the next five years. Having at last discharged these most pressing duties, the Convention took up, in the year 1875, the question of forming the constitution. It could not have done this before 1875, because down to that year the majority of the members of the Convention were opposed to the republic, but were not united among themselves as to any other form.

During the year 1875 the Convention passed the organic laws which together form the present constitution of the French Republic. The Convention did not submit these laws to a popular vote. The present French constitution does not, therefore, rest

upon the plebiscite.¹ Its authority and genuineness have not, however, been seriously questioned on that ground.

With this brief survey of the history of the origin of the Convention of 1871, we may now proceed to consider its work in the creation of the present Legislative Chambers of the French Republic.

I. THE COMPOSITION AND POWERS OF THE CHAMBER OF DEPUTIES.

(1.) *Its Composition.*

The members of the Chamber of Deputies are chosen for a term of five years by the universal suffrage of all male French citizens twenty-one years of age, and six months resident in the commune in which the vote is offered. Specially disqualified from voting are all persons convicted by the courts of certain crimes, all condemned by the courts to the loss of civil or political rights, all declared in bankruptcy, all condemned for vagabondage and mendicancy, and all subject to guardianship.

The elections are by secret ballot, direct vote and district ticket. The electoral district is the *arrondissement*, unless the population of the *arrondissement* exceeds one hundred thousand persons, in which case it is divided into two election districts. There are now five hundred and eighty-four members of the Chamber of Deputies, and but three hundred and sixty-two *arrondissements*, so that quite a number of the *arrondissements* are divided into two election districts. Notwithstanding this the more populous *arrondissements* are still in disadvantage as to representation, against the less populous. There is here some concession to the principle of local organization in the representation.

The French have vacillated somewhat between the principle of the district ticket in the election of the deputies and that of the general ticket, or the *scrutin de liste*, as they term it, meaning thereby the election of the deputies according to *départements*, each suffrage holder being allowed to vote for as many candidates as the *département* in which he may reside, might have representatives in the Chamber of Deputies. There are eighty-seven *départements* in France. In

many cases, therefore, under the principle of the *scrutin de liste*, each voter would be obliged to deposit a ticket containing at least ten names. The *scrutin de liste* was followed throughout the period of the Convention for the election of its members. The Convention itself, however, established the principle of the district ticket for the election of the members of the first Chamber of Deputies. In 1885 the principle of the *scrutin de liste* was adopted for these elections. Gambetta was strongly for it, because it would give his party machine a vast power in the nomination of the candidates throughout the country. He came near securing it before his death in 1882. Four years' experience with it, however, convinced the French Legislature that it left the voter almost helpless in the selection of his candidates. In 1889 it was again abolished, and at present the district ticket seems to be the well established principle.

The general qualifications for membership in the Chamber of Deputies are the right to vote and the attainment of the twenty-fifth year of age. Members of families that have reigned in France, military persons in active service, and certain civil officers are disqualified, the first permanently, the others temporarily, from seats in the Chamber although possessing the general qualifications.

(2.) *The Powers of the Chamber of Deputies.*

This body is entirely independent in its internal organization, electing its own bureau of officers, and establishing its own rules of discipline and procedure.

It possesses in all respects by the letter of the constitution equal legislative power with the Senate, and in one very important respect greater legislative power than the Senate, viz., in the initiation of financial legislation. This Chamber is empowered by the constitution to initiate such legislation, while the Senate is not so empowered. In fact this power is denied to the Senate by article 8 of the law relative to the organization of the Senate, which provides that all financial measures shall be first presented in the Chamber of Deputies and passed by that Chamber before going to the Senate. This means that either the president of the

republic or the Chamber of Deputies may originate such measures, but not the Senate, and that when the president originates them, they must be sent to the Chamber of Deputies first and be passed by it before being sent to the Senate.

In regard to all other subjects of legislation there is parity of powers, by the express provisions of the constitution, between the Chamber of Deputies and the Senate. Nevertheless the Chamber of Deputies has undertaken to work itself, in practice, into the position of the British House of Commons. I will relate, briefly, the history and the result of that attempt under the subject of the Cabinet at the end of this paper.

II. THE COMPOSITION AND POWERS OF THE SENATE.

(1.) *The Composition of the Body.*

The Senate consists of three hundred members, chosen for a term of nine years by electoral colleges in the départements, upon the principle of the *scrutin de liste*. The electoral colleges of the départements for the choice of senators are composed of the councilors of the respective départements, the councilors of the arrondissements, into which each département is divided, representatives of the council of each commune within each département, and the members of the Chamber of Deputies from each département.

The councilors of the départements, arrondissements, and communes are the members of the administrative boards of these respective divisions. They are all elected by universal male adult suffrage and direct vote. The deputies from each département are elected by the same suffrage, as I have already stated.

The members of the French Senate are therefore chosen ultimately by popular suffrage, but exercised indirectly.

In regard to three of the four classes of the senatorial electors, the indirection is of one degree only. In the case of the other class, the representatives of the councils of the communities, the indirection is of two degrees.

The members of this class far outnumber those of the other three classes taken to-

gether, so that the general principle of the manner of electing the senators may be said to be indirect election at two removes from the original voters.

While thus we may say that the universal suffrage of the male adult resident citizens of France is the source out of which the Senate proceeds, we must explain that the corresponding principle of the apportionment of the representation according to population does not prevail in the distribution of the seats in the senatorial electoral colleges nor in the Senate itself. The less populous communes have a relatively larger representation in these electoral colleges than the more populous, and the less populous départements have a relatively larger representation in the Senate than the more populous.

The apportionment of the representation in the Senate is thus seen to have large regard to community organization. This is very important, and very sound political science. The communities are the products of natural forces. They are the underpinning of the entire political order, and slight differences in population ought to give way before the historic principle of commune equality, at least in the distribution of the representation in one of the legislative Chambers. It is a conservative principle of great value. It must not, however, be insisted upon to an extreme degree. It is not so insisted upon in the apportionment of the seats in the French Senate.

The least populous département of France, according to the last census, contained one hundred and fifteen thousand persons, and is represented by one senator, while the most populous contained about three million persons and is represented by ten senators.

Any commune in France no matter how small the population, and there are communes with no more than one hundred residents, sends one representative to the senatorial electoral college of the département in which it may be situated; while the city of Paris, with a population of two and a half millions of people, has less than two hundred representatives in the senatorial college of the Département of the Seine. In fact the city of Paris, as a commune, is entitled to send but about thirty

representatives to the senatorial electoral college of the Département of the Seine. The larger number is owing to the fact that Paris is virtually the Département of the Seine, and the communal councilors of Paris are also departmental councilors of the Département of the Seine. They therefore sit individually, as well as by representation, in the senatorial electoral college of the Département of the Seine.

There is no question that this very moderate and modified recognition of the principle of communal equality in the distribution of the representation in the Senate is a great offense to the French radical democracy. Their principle is representation according to population in both Chambers, and we may expect strenuous and continuous efforts from that quarter for a further reform of the present custom in the direction of mathematical politics.

When the Senate was created by the constitutional law of February, 1875, one fourth of its members were chosen for life terms by the Convention which made the constitution, and any vacancies in these life-sensorships were to be filled by the Senate itself. The National Assembly of 1884 abolished this provision, and the vacancies in the life sensorships have since then been filled in the manner provided for the other sensorships. There are still in the Senate a number of the life senators, elected before 1884, but the number is rapidly decreasing, and they will all soon disappear, since the qualifications necessary to the attainment of membership in the Senate, while in most respects those required for membership in the other Chamber, demand the completion of the fortieth year of age.

The election of the senators by the *scrutin de liste* is the one method which has been followed without change from the first. It has been found to work without difficulty in the case of those elections. In the first place, the electoral body is a comparatively well body; it is composed of men above the average voter in intelligence; and it is all assembled in one place. There is little danger that it will be controlled by a machine. In the second place, the Senate

changes by thirds, once in three years, and since the majority of the départements elect but three senators in all, the colleges of a majority of the départements may be called upon to elect only one senator at a time.

The *scrutin de liste* also gives the département a sort of recognition in the manner of electing the senators. It is a little balance to the intense centralization, in most respects, of the governmental system of the French Republic.

(2.) *The Powers of the Senate.*

The French Senate is the only Upper House in the great states of the world which enjoys an organization as entirely independent of the executive department of the government as the Lower House possesses.

The French Senate elects its own bureau of officers from the president to the door-keeper, determines its own rules of discipline, and enacts its own code of parliamentary procedure.

It is a judicial body for trying the president of the republic for high treason, the ministers for crimes committed in the execution of their offices, and anybody accused of an attack upon the public security. Of these functions I do not need to speak in detail in this paper, which purposes to deal with this Chamber only as a legislative body.

As a general principle it has, according to the letter of the constitution, parity of powers in legislation with the Chamber of Deputies, except in the initiation of bills relating to the finances. Such bills must, as I have already said, originate either in the Chamber of Deputies or with the president of the republic, and if with the president of the republic must be presented first to the Chamber of Deputies and passed by this body before being transmitted to the Senate. The Senate has claimed full power to amend such bills and reject them *in toto*. The Chamber of Deputies has denied such a power to the Senate to the extent claimed, but has in practice accepted many amendments to its financial bills made in the Senate.

This is another question which will probably give rise to many contests in the future.

III. THE MODE OF LEGISLATION.

THE process of legislation in the French Chambers is very simple. Each Chamber may initiate legislation upon any subject, as I have just said, except the finances; and a bill upon any subject whatsoever must be passed in all its parts by a majority vote in both Chambers in order to become a law. This is not only necessary, but it is also sufficient, i. e., the president of the republic has no veto power upon the legislation of the Chambers. The constitution provides a period of thirty days between the passage of the law by the Chambers and its necessary promulgation by the president of the republic, and reduces this period to three days in case the Chamber should vote that promulgation is urgent. Within these respective periods the president of the republic may demand of the Chambers a reconsideration of the measure, and they are required by the constitution to accord the request. If they repass the measure by majority vote, the president must yield and promulgate the law.

The Chambers can also initiate the call of the national assembly for the purpose of amending or revising the constitution. The chief question which has arisen in the exercise of this power is whether the Chambers can limit the action of the national assembly by their agreement beforehand upon the subjects in regard to which the constitution may be amended or revised. The affirmative view of this question would be a security to the rights and powers of the smaller body, the Senate, since the national assembly is composed of the members of the two Chambers in joint assembly, but the more numerous deputies have espoused with great unanimity the negative view; and it must be recognized that they have the logic of the matter with them. The national assembly is the sovereign power in the constitution and cannot be limited, therefore, by a branch of the government, or even by the whole government, in its action. The national assembly may consider any subject it will when once it is organized. The Chambers in joint assembly also elect the president of the republic.

The process of legislation cannot, how-

ever, be completely understood without an accurate knowledge of the French Cabinet and its relation to the Chambers.

The French ministry, or Cabinet, is created by the constitution in those provisions which declare that every act of the president of the republic must be countersigned by a minister, that the president is irresponsible except for the commission of high treason, and that the ministers are collectively responsible to the Chambers for the general policy of the government and individually responsible for their own personal acts.

These provisions require thus the appointment of ministers, their action as a body, and their responsibility to the Legislature for the acts of the president in the administration of the government. Whatever power the president has to participate in legislation must therefore be exercised through them, and their responsibility in the exercise of such power is to the Chambers.

Now the president of the republic is empowered by the constitution to call the Chambers to an extra session; to adjourn the Chambers twice during the same session, and for as long as one month each time; to prorogue the Chambers after they shall have sat in regular session for five months; to dissolve the Chamber of Deputies, with the consent of the Senate; to propose to the Chambers to resolve themselves into joint or national assembly; to initiate every form of legislation upon all subjects; to require of the Chambers a reconsideration of any measure passed by them; and to promulgate the laws. All these things he must do through a minister or the ministry, and the minister or ministry is responsible for them to the Chambers.

Now, so far as the letter of the constitution is concerned, the president of the republic may select his ministers at his own pleasure and is not confined to the membership of the Chambers; and according to the express mandate of the constitution, the ministers and the ministry are responsible to the *two* Chambers, not to either exclusively. The question is whether the administration of government under responsibility to the Legislature can be worked according

to such principles. Let us consult the experience of the present French Republic itself upon the subject.

Marshal MacMahon was the president of the republic when the present constitution came into force. He had a sort of ministry, which he had constituted while the Convention was still sitting, under the leadership of Buffet [büf-fä], who was in politics a monarchist. The majority in the first Chamber of Deputies returned under the new constitution proved to be republican, but in the Senate the monarchists still controlled, as they had done in the Convention down to the moment of the establishment of the constitution and the dissolution of the Convention.

The president dismissed Buffet and called Dufaure [dü-fore] to form a new ministry. Dufaure was a republican and a member of the Chamber of Deputies. His colleagues in the new ministry were also republicans and were members of the Chamber of Deputies.

If any principle was to be generalized from this procedure, it was that the ministry must agree politically with the majority in the Chamber of Deputies, and be members of one of the Chambers, if not of the Chamber of Deputies alone, and must resign when they lose the support of the majority in the Chamber of Deputies.

The Senate immediately repudiated the idea that the control of the administration was exclusively in the Chamber of Deputies and asserted equal powers in this respect with the Chamber of Deputies. An excited and prolonged debate upon the subject in both Chambers followed; and President MacMahon, who was at heart a monarchist, thought to take advantage of the confusion in the legislative bodies, and appointed the Duc de Broglie [dük deh brö'y], a strong legitimist, to form a new ministry. The Deputies immediately voted distrust of the new ministry. President MacMahon adjourned the Chambers for a month. Upon their reassembly, he, with the consent of the Senate, dissolved the Chamber of Deputies. Despite the interference of the administration, the republicans won the majority of

the seats in the new elections. These elections were held on the 14th of October (1877). President MacMahon did not, however, dismiss the De Broglie ministry, but sought to govern by the aid of the Senate. The Orleanist party in the Senate, however, refused to sustain this view of the relation of the Cabinet to the Chambers, and De Broglie resigned.

President MacMahon then called General Rochebonès [rôsh-bon-â] to form a ministry. Rochebonès was not a member of either Chamber. He, by the direction of the president of course, selected colleagues who were not members of either Chamber. The Deputies resolved at once not to recognize the acts or the existence of such a ministry and delayed the passage of the budget. The president saw that he must yield or try a *coup d'état*.² On the thirteenth of December he gave way, called Dufaure to form a new ministry, and empowered him to rule in agreement with the majority of the Chamber of Deputies. From that day to this it has never been questioned that the ministers must be members of one of the Chambers, and must rule in harmony with the majority in the Chamber of Deputies.

The question of to-day is whether the ministry must also possess the confidence of the majority of the Senate. According to the letter of the constitution it must; and at least one ministry, that of M. Tirard in 1890, resigned upon an adverse vote in the Senate. In this case, however, the ministerial policy was laid before the Senate without having been previously presented to the Chamber of Deputies, and the ministry resigned without consulting this Chamber at all.

No ministry which has formally received the support of the Chamber of Deputies

upon any project has resigned because of the opposition of the Senate. If the practice can be said to have settled this point as yet, it must be said that the ministry need not resign on account of not having the confidence of the Senate. The Senate disputes the principle naturally, but yields to the practice. The practice must ultimately prevail without dispute, if parliamentary government is to be the settled form of administration in the French system, for the control of the administration by two legislative bodies will so lame the administration as to produce anarchy and chaos. Double deliberation in legislation is a sound principle, but double control of the administration is an impossibility in good political science, and fatal confusion and weakness in political practice.

But if such be the relation of the ministry and the ministers to the Legislature in the French system, then the ministry becomes simply a committee of the leaders of the party in majority in the Chamber of Deputies, and the Chamber of Deputies acquires through it all the powers of the president of the republic in legislation. The result of this will of course be the ultimate overthrow of the parity of powers between the two Chambers, and the reduction of the Senate to a more or less subordinate position as a legislative body, as the majority in the Chamber of Deputies sees fit to make a more or less radical use of its powers and opportunities. I am afraid this is the line along which the relations between the Chambers, and between the Chambers and the ministry, will develop in the future. If it is, both the Senate and the presidency of the republic will soon begin to appear to the radical logic of the French in the light of superfluities.

THE QUESTION OF MADAGASCAR.

BY MAURICE ORDINAIRE.

TRANSLATED FOR "THE CHAUTAUQUAN" FROM THE FRENCH "REVUE DE PARIS."

A COLONIAL contest lasting for nearly three centuries and still awaiting decision: Such is the question of Madagascar. The relations of ancient France with the Island of Dauphiny, as it was called, are now only a matter of curious interest. The interior relations of the great island, the conditions under which France now regulates the action of its colonies, are no longer the same. We ought to draw a useful lesson from the history of the privileged companies and the bold adventurers who in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries attempted, generally with more courage than method, to colonize Madagascar.

The check to these attempts at colonization on the part of the French at the end of the eighteenth century was complete. There remained to us not more than two or three posts upon the eastern shore,—the most modest of establishments,—and these were destroyed during the wars of the empire. After 1815, when Sir R. Farquhar, the first English governor of Mauritius, had the audacity to claim Madagascar as a dependency of his government, we had only some historic rights to defend. The cabinet of London recognized them with good enough grace. But France ceased from that time to be without a rival in the Indian Ocean. She was, besides, to find competitors upon the very soil of the island.

In spite of the proximity of Africa the population of Madagascar came in great part originally from distant India. In spite of frequent marriages with the negroes and the Arabians of the African coast, many of these half breed tribes preserved the traits of the Malay race. It is especially among the Hovas that the Malay characteristics are apparent. This race was crowded back toward the central plateau, a region relatively cold and slightly fertile, where it occupied itself in war and in work. Up to the end of

the eighteenth century unknown in Europe, it remained confined in its province of Imerina. At this time a chief united the different Hova tribes and shook off the yoke of the Sakalavas, of whom they were the vassals.

In 1810 this chief's son Radama I. succeeded him, and under his leadership the Hova people became the conquering race. It has many a time been related how Sir R. Farquhar, jealous of the French power in the great island which he had not been able to add to the possessions of England, favored the ambition of Radama, furnishing him with arms, with military instruction and political councilors, and officially recognizing in him the title of the king of Madagascar.

This policy has not ceased to be that of the English. The Hovas willingly accept a co-operation which helps on their designs, but they never entirely desist from the defiant distrust with which they treat all foreigners, even the English, their apparently disinterested protectors. This sentiment broke forth once against the latter into a violent reaction. At the death of Radama in 1828 all reforms of European origin were abandoned; treaties were broken, missionaries were driven out, merchants were insulted; and Madagascar was closed to the influence of English missionaries until the end of the reign of Ranavaloa I., the widow of Radama, who died in 1861. This English influence was greatly increased in 1868 by the conversion of the queen, Ranavaloa II., and of the prime minister to Protestantism, which became the religion of the state and spread rapidly among the people of Imerina, the province of the Hovas.

To this persevering policy of the English, meanwhile, France made no opposition. The government of the Restoration had allowed Radama to accomplish the ruin of the last of our establishments upon the eastern side, Tintingue, Foul Point, Fort Dauphin.

France had to content itself in 1822 with occupying the island of Sainte-Marie and with attempting in 1829 some tardy reprisals which the revolution of 1830 interrupted.

Under the July monarchy¹ the interests of France appeared to Madagascar, as well as to other lands, intimately blended with those of England, as an Anglo-French squadron bombarded Tamatava, a seaport of that island, in 1845. The second empire had other matters on hand to occupy its attention than Madagascar. A stroke of fortune, however, gave France a privileged position. Several Frenchmen, notably Messrs. Lambert and Labord, very influential in the court of Queen Ranavaloa, were on terms of intimate friendship with Prince Rakout, the heir to the throne. At the death of the queen, the prince, having become Radama II., signed a charter which accorded to a French society very important concessions. But this project, imprudently noised abroad, had awakened the national suspicion of the Hovas. Radama II. died May 11, 1862, the victim of a conspiracy, of which the English residents seem not to have been ignorant. The Lambert charter was immediately denounced and the imperial government satisfied itself with an indemnity. The affair of the Lambert charter had been only an adventure and the influence of France at Tananarivo, the capital of Ankova, the territory of the Hovas, was almost destroyed.

The acquisition of a new colonial empire after 1870 was inspired by a political rather than economic idea. At the same time that it was reconstructing its continental power, the republic sought occasion to restore its prestige abroad. Forgotten titles and rights were resought and proclaimed. In this excess of colonial fever too much was undertaken without a well defined plan, without a careful study of the consequences, without being resigned beforehand to the necessary sacrifices, which render distant conquests so easy to an old colonial power.

Our intervention in Madagascar suffered greatly from unfavorable circumstances. The ancient rights of France in the island were only a memory. It had indeed at one time seemed to have renounced them completely,

by recognizing Radama II. as king of the whole island in exchange for the Lambert charter. But our claims in 1882 rested upon more recent and quite different titles. We had against the Hovas numerous grievances. Since our misfortunes of 1870 they had ignored our rights; all treaties had been violated. Besides, Protestant teaching had been made obligatory, in spite of the clause in the treaty of 1868, proclaiming liberty to Catholic instruction. To all of these a still graver cause of disturbance was added. The French governor of Réunion had occupied, upon the western coast, the island of Nossi-Be, and had made a treaty with the Sakalava chiefs, establishing a protectorate. Repeated attempts of the Hovas to impose their authority over the chiefs thus placed under the protection of France, were the direct cause of the conflict.

Public opinion was favorable to energetic action and the Chamber of Deputies encouraged it by an almost unanimous vote. But the government, embarrassed by the unexpected prolongation of hostilities with China, could not send to Madagascar sufficient forces. For three years hostilities were feebly carried on. In 1885 the treaty of peace with China set us at liberty. Meantime, distant expeditions had lost favor with the public, and M. de Freycinet, who had just succeeded Jules Ferry, decided to settle with Madagascar. On December 17, 1885, a treaty of peace was signed.

By this treaty France recognized the queen of the Hovas as sovereign of all the islands, and renounced its protectorate over the Sakalavas of the northwest. It also yielded the right of allowing its natives to acquire property there, and contented itself with stipulating for them long leases and contracts for working people. In exchange for these concessions it was agreed that a resident, installed in Tananarivo with a military escort, should preside over the foreign relations of Madagascar, without interfering with the interior administration of the different states. France also reserved the right of occupying the bay of Diego Suarez, a magnificent military port situated on the northern part of the island, "and of creating

there the establishments that it may consider desirable."

It will be seen that the political idea which inspired this negotiation was a very tenable one. The plan of using the Hova element, superior to the other tribes in intelligence, in civilization, in cohesiveness,—being the only one which presented an embryo of organization—in order to extend our domination over the island, many persons were inclined to think the best possible. This object would be gained by granting them full interior control. At the same time, by guarding the right to preside over all the foreign relations of the island, thus being the intermediary between it and foreign powers, we should preserve the very essence of a protectorate. But we yielded upon the very points which had been the cause of the conflict, and, to increase the mortification of our position, the French plenipotentiaries had the weakness to sign an agreement which limited to fifty men the escort of the resident general and to the distance of a mile and a half at the south of the bay our territory of Diego Suarez.

Even thus restricted, our rights have been absolutely disregarded by the Hovas. The French resident general during nine years has not been able to exercise the single prerogative conferred upon him, that of presiding over the foreign relations of Madagascar. The question began to assume importance in 1887 when a new United States consul asked for an *exequatur*.² In spite of all he could do M. le Myre de Vilers, our resident general, could only obtain from the prime minister a promise that the order should be issued by the government and delivered by its agent. The French government, though taking no aggressive steps, would not accept of such an arrangement.

M. Ribot, the minister of foreign affairs thought to settle the long standing difficulty by obtaining from England and then from Germany in the convention held at Zanzibar in August, 1890, the recognition of our protectorate over Madagascar. Only on this condition would he assent to the British protectorate over Zanzibar; and thus he carried his point with its consequences. The blow

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was a rough one for the disputatious English colony at Tananarivo. Certain English statesmen have scarcely yet been able to pardon Lord Salisbury for this "treason."

The Hova government thought the time for war had come. But, the first excitement past, our resident general found himself obliged to meet the same action as before on the part of the prime minister. In 1891 the German consul loyally applied to the French intermediary for his *exequatur*. But the Hova government refused to recognize our protectorate, and the consul is still waiting. England has avoided squarely meeting the measures of the convention of 1890 up to this time by sending to Madagascar only such officials as can do without an *exequatur*. In fact, all the powers, seeing that the prime minister pays no regard to the affairs which are brought to his notice through our resident, have ceased trying to hold official relations with him.

It will readily be seen that the representative of France under these conditions can have not the slightest influence over the interior administration of the island. Except the construction of a telegraph line from Tamatava to Tananarivo, at the expense of the French treasury, the organization of a postal service, the erection of residences at the principal centers of population, and the creation at Tamatava of a civil tribunal for the use of Europeans, no material ameliorations, no social or administrative reforms, have been effected in Madagascar. A glance at the interior situation of the island will show how urgent such reforms are.

When after a dreary journey of six or seven days through the wild country, broken by torrents and swamps, inhabited by miserable and degraded people, the traveler comes in sight of Tananarivo, the first view of this city of one hundred thousand souls, with its palaces and its churches, surprises him.

The same contrast is to be found in the institutions of the Hova people. Its educators, the English missionaries, who uphold the Hovas in their stand against the French, have long succeeded in masking its

rudimentary, not to say barbarous state behind the false display of a court, of numerous ministers, of bedizened uniforms, a penal code, and other puerile imitations of European civilization.

The Hova government, as it really exists, is very simple. A single man, the prime minister, unites in himself all the powers. This institution dates from Ranavaloa I. One of the favorites of the queen founded a veritable dynasty of "mayors of the palace" who for forty years directed the government. In 1862, after the death of the queen, he became the soul of a conspiracy which overthrew the new king. Then his brother, Rainilaiarivony, supplanted him, and married the queen. On the death of the queen, he, the prime minister, married her successor Ranavaloa II., and on her death in 1883, he married her successor, Ranavaloa III. The order of the succession to the throne is not defined. It is this modern Blue-Beard, a very intelligent and shrewd Asiatic, eloquent, relatively honest in the midst of corruption, who has given to the functions of the prime minister their actual character.

Of the four million inhabitants of Madagascar, about one fourth are Hovas, who live in the province of Imerina. This province possesses a special administrative organization founded upon castes. The rest of the island is divided into eleven provinces, each one having at its head a governor. But the authority of the Hovas extends in a greater or less degree over this immense territory. The simplicity of this system in a country so primitive makes it a good one, for most of the governors are neither intelligent nor educated. Unfortunately, administration is affected by the institutions which are the sources of odious abuses,—gratuity of the government offices, salary, and the *corvée*.⁴

The governors, not being paid, remunerate themselves, which is an easy thing to do provided they themselves collect the taxes. The result is that only a small part of the sums received go into the public treasury.

Slavery in very widespread. In Imerina, for instance, the greater part of the popula-

lation is under subjection. But the slaves have, in general, the liberty of coming and going and retaining the greater part of their earnings. As they are often attached to the land the sale of slaves is rare. They have, moreover, the right of redeeming themselves which they seldom use, though, fearing the freedom which would deliver them over to two obligations still more severe, military service and the *corvée*.

Slavery, although relatively mild, is not less a notable obstacle to the moral and economical development of the people. But nothing approaches the abuse engendered by the *corvée*. It is a most exacting form of taxation. It is applied to all work, that of the mind as well as that of the arm. Its chief characteristic is that it is absolutely undetermined and arbitrary. Thus all the population of a region, can, without indemnity and at the risk of perishing from hunger, be set at any public work, such as that of the mines, for example. A skilled workman may be summoned, and if his talent has the misfortune to please, may be retained indefinitely by means of the *corvée*. If it is added that the *corvée* is chiefly exacted by the officials for their own personal use it will be understood to what degree it can stop all progress.

There is actually no remedy for these evils. Madagascar is helpless because its government is compelled to submit to the wishes of the Hovas, and they have no other ideal or care than to prevent the birth, upon their soil, of European interests which might serve to bring about any foreign intervention whatever. The other tribes do not share in this distrust of foreigners. Not only the Malagasians, who hate the oppressive Hovas, but even the masses of Imerina, whose lot is a very hard one, would accept with gladness any reform.

The policy of isolation has produced the natural effect. Commerce is languishing. Not less opposed to all progress are the obstacles placed against the agricultural and industrial enterprises of the Europeans. The Hova government is, it is true, relatively prodigal of concessions from which it can draw an immediate benefice under the form

of securities and gifts; but only a very few of the Europeans who have obtained them have been able to derive any advantage from them on account of the rigor of the conditions imposed or some other circumstances which render so difficult the colonization of Madagascar.

Thus these useful privileges conceded to the English or Americans only become one shackle more upon commerce.

The situation in which France is placed cannot be prolonged without grave inconvenience. Mortifying on account of the diplomatic embarrassment to which it subjects us, perilous because of the responsibilities which rest upon the nation which has assumed the protectorate of the island, it is also causing us the loss of much precious time. Around our useless possession, upon the borders of the Indian Ocean, a European world is rising. Australia is becoming a powerful state; the Cape^a is being settled with extreme rapidity. Such examples show us what is the fate awaiting those colonial powers who are not able to take advantage of their possessions. If we wish to keep Madagascar, which is a strategic point of the first order and which with its neighboring islands might become a little French world in language and customs, it is necessary for us to hasten to open it to colonization.

One thing which ought to assure us is that the natives, gentle and docile, are exceptionally apt in assimilation. Even among the Hovas this latter trait is noticeable. They are economic, are well fitted for commerce, are patient and laborious agriculturists, and intelligent workmen, although, like all Asiatics, imitators rather than inventors. Finally, many among them have received a certain amount of instruction and under the right control would form an exceedingly useful intermediary between our civilization and the more ignorant parts of the population.

It remains to be decided when and how there can be established a reforming guardianship, humane and beneficent, and which

will also be profitable to the interests of France. It cannot be reasonably hoped that the present prime minister will change his views; but he is old. What will happen on his death? Already the succession is the object of numerous competitions. But these questions can have little profit for us as long as the best disposed ministry would be unable to change the policy without the support of a French garrison.

While waiting, the interior condition of Madagascar grows worse from day to day. The prime minister, in order to meet his financial difficulties, had, in 1892, to order a new direct tax. This arbitrary and vexatious levy has caused numerous insurrections and increased the number of brigands (recruited among fugitive slaves, deserted soldiers, and countrymen flying from the *corvée*), who unite in bands to attack villages and rob travelers. Europeans are not spared; last year two Frenchmen were assassinated, one of whom was the explorer Muller. Almost every mail brings news of some conflict. At the end of the year 1893, M. Develle took the precaution of interdicting the importation of arms to Madagascar. Last March M. Casimer-Perier, then president of the council, demanded and obtained a grant which has served to reinforce our garrisons at Diego Suarez and at Réunion.

It is doubtless unnecessary to see in this increase of the military force anything more than a matter of precaution. The Hovas greatly fear war, but they are convinced that they are out of our reach and that our patience has no limits. France certainly does not desire new colonial expeditions. That to Madagascar is not seductive. But public opinion resigns itself with good grace to the vigorous measures which necessity lays upon it. It is to the government at Imerina that belongs the settlement of the question whether this demonstration is necessary or useless. M. le Myre de Vilers but recently set out for this province in order to obtain its answer. Let us hope that it will be favorable.

A CHRISTMAS MEDITATION.

BY BISHOP JOHN H. VINCENT.

"And they came with haste and found both Mary and Joseph and the babe lying in the manger, and when they saw it they made known concerning the saying which was spoken to them about this child."

—*Luke ii., 16, 17.*

THERE was nothing so very remarkable in what these shepherds saw. It was not an unusual thing to turn a stable into an inn for the temporary accommodation to travelers during a crowded season, but it was what the shepherds saw and what they heard before that gave significance to this vision of the mother and her babe in the city of Bethlehem. It was the angel of the Lord who stood by them and the glory of the Lord that shone round about them, and the words which the angels spoke about good tidings of great joy and the birth in the city of David of a Savior which is Christ the Lord, and the multitude of the heavenly host that appeared with the angel praising God—these are the things that gave significance to the scene in that lowly stable of that lowly town.

Having heard the speech of the angel and the song of the heavenly host they made sure that this vision of the night was not merely a vision. What if after all this exaltation there should be no babe in the manger at Bethlehem? There was in what the angels said to them an implied command that they should corroborate by personal observation the testimony given. The angel said, "Ye shall find a babe wrapped in swaddling clothes and lying in a manger." That was equivalent to a command, and so the shepherds said when the angels went away from them into heaven, "Let us now go even unto Bethlehem and see this thing that is come to pass which the Lord hath made known unto us." To the words of the angel and the song of the multitude they added personal investigation; and it was after they were fully convinced concerning the saying which was spoken to them about this child that they made known the wonderful story to others.

Christianity came to the world to bless

the world; to provide a Savior—an anointed Savior, a divine Savior—Christ the Lord. Good tidings of great joy indeed to all people was the announcement that for humanity there was a divine deliverer; that God was to be glorified by man's appropriation of his gift; that on earth there was to be peace because of the manifestation of God's glory; that there was to be a union between heaven and earth; that God's good will to man was to be unequivocally expressed; that man's good will was to be promoted. Verily this song is a prophecy of the coming kingdom. In the New Revision there is a slight change in the rendering of the angel's song, "Glory to God in the highest and on earth peace among men in whom He is well pleased." They only can be at peace who are as to character, spirit, and conduct "well pleasing" to God. Only the peace which comes from the divine approval is true peace. Here we have the divine ideal of character and the divine ideal of a perfect humanity.

Christianity works for the race through the individual. Its ministry is to the world at large, to society as a whole, but to reach the multitude as a unity Christianity must address itself to the individual and gain full possession of him that he may be well pleasing to God. Individual regeneration and growth is the law of Christian life. No wonder then that the shepherds told to their fellow-men this wonderful story. It was good enough to tell. It was too good a story to keep. They had ample demonstration of the truth of it, and they already anticipated the mission of a church to be fulfilled in obeying the Savior's last command, "Preach this gospel to every creature."

The angels sang this song of good cheer to humanity in the ears of representative men—simple, sincere, hard-working men,

shepherds of Judea—and why not? A man with horny hands may have the voice of God within his heart and as he may love his prattling babe and his faithful wife he may love God and his neighbor in sincerity and in truth. Men of common sort are quite able to understand the simple things of the gospel. It was therefore not waste of truth for angels in the heavenly places to sing within the hearing of shepherds watching their flocks by night the glories of the new kingdom and the end it was destined to achieve.

Human learning and wealth and dignity may undervalue the capacity and ability of what are known as the lower classes of society. A man in financial poverty, a plebeian, the lowest plowman, does have all the elements necessary to the recognition of truth, the sense of sin, the unrest of guilt, and the peace and triumph of grace. Therefore the gospel goes to all men and it really comes not as an after fruit of human culture but as a very first step of preparation for all true development and enrichment. The fear of the Lord is the beginning of wisdom. We should not wait until men can read and write and appreciate art before giving to them the treasures of the gospel of Christ, for that gospel should come at the very beginning. Tell the story of the gospel to the illiterate, to the degraded, to the outcast, to the discouraged, to the impotent.

After the shepherds came to Bethlehem—we do not know how long after—the wise men from the East came. They were unlike the shepherds. They lived in a larger world. They represented the scholarship and aspiration of their age. They too had a vision in the heavens, and like the shepherds they followed it. What was to the shepherds an angel was to the wise men a star. Culture and ignorance go to the same shrine. The want of the human soul is a common want. The king, the peasant, the wise man, the shepherd, all have need of the same thing. Jesus came to meet this universal need of humanity. Shepherds with their feet and garments damp with the dew of the early morning, the breath of peace and wonder on their lips, offered what they had at the same shrine where later on the great

men of the East brought gold, and frankincense, and myrrh. The educated man must find pardon and help precisely where and as the ignorant man receives it. The more a man knows—if he be a truly wise as well as a knowing man—the further he is willing to go for truth's sake.

This song of the ideal kingdom, when peace and good will should dwell in the earth and God be glorified in the thought, purposes, and affections of men, awakened the shepherds to personal desire which took form in a resolve. "Let us now go even unto Bethlehem," they said, "and see this thing that is come to pass which the Lord hath made known to us." It is one thing to see visions, it is another thing to see reality. It is one thing to feel the supernatural and spiritual impulses which come to us from the invisible world, it is another thing to recognize in material form the historic reality of which the spiritual impulse is a foregleam and foretaste. These men came to Bethlehem. They entered the stable and found the babe and His mother. Whatever they may have detected in the serenity of her face and the divine light that shone in the eyes and about the brow of the wonderful babe, certainly their faith was established in the fuller revelation of the angels concerning the character and the mission of this the babe of Bethlehem.

What the shepherds of Bethlehem did we should do. It is the privilege of every man to taste for himself the promises of God as made known through Jesus Christ. Personal experience of the gospel is the demand of our times. External Christianity fulfills its mission, but without subjective experience it is as useless as a physical body in which the light of the soul has been extinguished. The real life is the life within—the life of truth, of conviction, of fear, of hope, of passion, of longing, of love. Externalities of faith and worship must reproduce themselves in internalities of experience. The soul thirsts for rest from the guilt of sin, from the morbid excitements of passion, from the false ambitions of carnal life. Christianity is an interior illumination and dominion. It gives rest of spirit, pardon of

sin, peace with God, victory over evil desire, and begets within the soul that submits itself to the divine control abiding love, all dominating love, radiant, joyful, triumphant love, by which man on earth dwells in the very atmosphere of the heavens. The arguments in favor of Christianity are not to be found in the processes of logic, in the demonstration of mathematics, in the well established facts of external history, but in the personal experience of pardon and peace and purity.

How much more we have who live on the verge of the twentieth century than did the simple shepherds of Bethlehem at the beginning of the first century of our era! We have Bethlehem still standing on the crown of the old hill in southern Judea, the plain of the shepherds stretching out from its base, the blue sky of Syria bending like a dome over the land of promise. We have the story of the babe—His sweetness, His purity, His growth in stature and wisdom and grace, but we have the history of the MAN—the peerless man whose name is the most illustrious—a name above every name that is named. In all these twenty centuries of human history we have the story of His life, His works, the signs He wrought, the gracious words that fell from His lips, the story of His precious death and burial, His glorious resurrection, and the coming of the Holy Ghost whose ministries He promised. We have the history of His church, the heroes who have lived and died in the defense of the faith, the victories accomplished by the Cross and the Word and the

Spirit, victories over races and kingdoms. We have the civilization which is the ripe product of His life; the institutions of philanthropy and education erected as products of His own power and righteousness, and even now in the heart of every man who will accept it there is the witness full of life and power to the fact that there has come to the world a Savior who is Christ the Lord.

The outer world is real; the inner world is real. Blessed is the life that finds harmony without and harmony within, the light filling the earth from the sun in the physical heaven, and the light filling the soul from the Sun of righteousness which is the center of the spiritual heaven. There is a summer fragrance filling the atmosphere of this material world; there is a sweeter fragrance which the soul inhales when it receives the delicious breath from the Spirit of the living and gracious God.

On this Christmas day do we go to our spiritual Bethlehem? Do we see the reality of Christ as our Savior, and do we go forth as did the shepherds full of new light to make known concerning the saying which has been spoken to us in the inmost life concerning this child, this man, this Savior, this present deliverer from the guilt and power of sin, this anointed one through whom on Christmas days and on all days of all the years we may receive the anointing from above? A blessed Christmas to every reader whose eyes shall be opened to see the mysteries of this present kingdom of our Lord and Savior Jesus Christ.

THE WORLD'S DEBT TO ASTRONOMY.*

BY PROFESSOR SIMON NEWCOMB, LL. D.
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ASTRONOMY is more intimately connected than any other science with the history of mankind. While chemistry, physics, and we might say all sciences which pertain to things on the earth, are comparatively modern, we find that contem-

plative men engaged in the study of the celestial motions even before the commencement of authentic history. The earliest navigators of whom we know must have been aware that the earth was round. This fact was certainly understood by the ancient Greeks and Egyptians, as well as it is at the

* Special Course for C. L. S. C. Graduates.

present day. True, they did not know that the earth revolved on its axis, but thought that the heavens and all that in them is performed a daily revolution around our globe, which was, therefore, the center of the universe. It was the cynosure,¹ or constellation of the Little Bear, by which the sailors used to guide their ships before the discovery of the mariner's compass. Thus we see both a practical and contemplative side to astronomy through all history. The world owes two debts to that science; one for its practical uses, and the other for the ideas it has afforded us of the immensity of creation.

The practical uses of astronomy are of two kinds: One relates to geography; the other to times, seasons, and chronology. Every navigator who sails long out of sight of land must be something of an astronomer. His compass tells him where are east, west, north, and south, but it gives him no information as to where on the wide ocean he may be, or whither the currents may be carrying him. Even with the swiftest modern steamers it is not safe to trust to the compass in crossing the Atlantic. A number of years ago the steamer *City of Washington* set out on her usual voyage from Liverpool to New York. By rare bad luck the weather was stormy or cloudy during her whole passage, so that the captain could not get a sight on the sun, and therefore had to trust to his compass and his log line, the former telling him in what direction he had steamed, and the latter how fast he was going each hour. The result was that the ship ran ashore on the coast of Nova Scotia, when the captain thought he was approaching New York.

Not only the navigator but the surveyor in the western wilds must depend on astronomical observations to learn his exact position on the earth's surface, or the latitude and longitude of the camp which he occupies. He is able to do this because the earth is round, and the direction of the plumb line not exactly the same at any two places. Let us suppose that the earth stood still, so as not to revolve on its axis at all. Then we should always see the stars at rest

and the star which was in the zenith of any place, say a farmhouse in New York, at any time, would be there every night and every hour of the year. Now the zenith is simply the point from which the plumb line seems to drop. Lie on the ground; hang a plummet above your head, sight on the line with one eye, and the direction of the sight will be the zenith of your place. Suppose the earth was still, and a certain star was at your zenith. Then if you went to another place a mile away, the direction of the plumb line would be slightly different. The change would, indeed, be very small, so small that you could not detect it by sighting with the plumb line. But astronomers and surveyors have vastly more accurate instruments than the plumb line and the eye, instruments by which a deviation that the unaided eye could not detect can be seen and measured. Instead of the plumb line they use a spirit level, or a basin of quicksilver. The surface of quicksilver is exactly level and so at right angles to the true direction of the plumb line or the force of gravity. Its direction is therefore a little different at two different places on the surface, and the change can be seen by its effect on the apparent direction of a star seen by reflection from the surface.

It is true that a considerable distance on the earth's surface will seem very small in its effect on the position of a star. Suppose there were two stars in the heavens, the one in the zenith of the place where you now stand, and the other in the zenith of a place a mile away. To the best eye unaided by a telescope those two stars would look like a single one. But let the two places be five miles apart, and the eye could see that there were two of them. A good telescope could distinguish between two stars corresponding to places not more than a hundred feet apart. The most exact measurements can determine distances ranging from thirty to sixty feet. If a skillful astronomical observer should mount a telescope on your premises, and determine his latitude by observations on two or three evenings, and then you should try to trick him by taking up the instrument and putting it at another

point one hundred feet north or south, he would find out that something was wrong by a single night's work.

Within the past three years a wobbling of the earth's axis has been discovered, which takes place within a circle 30 feet in radius and 60 feet in diameter. Its effect was noticed in astronomical observations many years ago, but the change it produced was so small that men could not find out what the matter was. The exact nature and amount of the wobbling is a work of the exact astronomy of the present time.

We cannot measure across oceans from island to island. Up to the present time we have not even measured across the continent, from New York to San Francisco, in the most precise way. Without astronomy we should know nothing of the distance between New York and Liverpool, except by the time which it took steamers to run it, a measure which would be very uncertain indeed. But by the aid of astronomical observations and the Atlantic cables the distance is found within a few hundred yards. Without astronomy we could scarcely make an accurate map of the United States, except at enormous labor and expense, and even then we could not be sure of its correctness. But the practical astronomer being able to determine his latitude and longitude within fifty yards, the positions of the principal points in all great cities of the country are known, and can be laid down on maps.

The world has always had to depend on astronomy for all its knowledge concerning times and seasons. The changes of the moon gave us the first month, and the year completes its round as the earth travels in its orbit. The results of astronomical observation are for us condensed into almanacs, which are now in such universal use that we never think of their astronomical origin. But in ancient times people had no almanacs, and they learned the time of year, or the number of days in the year, by observing the time when Sirius² or some other bright star rose or set with the sun, or disappeared from view in the sun's rays. At Alexandria in Egypt the length of the

year was determined yet more exactly by observing when the sun rose exactly in the east, and set exactly in the west, a date which fixed the equinox for them as for us. More than seventeen hundred years ago, Ptolemy, the great author of the *Almagest*,³ had fixed the length of the year to within a very few minutes. He knew it was a little less than 365½ days. The dates of events in ancient history depend very largely on the chronological cycles of astronomy. Eclipses of the sun and moon sometimes fixed the date of great events, and we learn the relation of ancient calendars⁴ to our own through the motions of the earth and moon, and can thus measure out the years for the events in ancient history on the same scale that we measure out our own.

At the present day, the work of the practical astronomer is made use of in our daily life throughout the whole country in yet another way. Our forefathers had to regulate their clocks by a sun dial, or perhaps by a mark at the corner of the house, which showed where the shadow of the house fell at noon. Very rude indeed was this method; and it was uncertain for another reason. It is not always exactly twenty-four hours between two noons by the sun. Sometimes for two or three months the sun will make it noon earlier and earlier every day; and during several other months later and later every day. The result is that, if a clock is perfectly regulated, the sun will be sometimes a quarter of an hour behind it, and sometimes nearly the same amount before it. Any effort to keep the clock in accord with this changing sun was in vain, and so the time of day was always uncertain.

Now, however, at some of the principal observatories⁵ of the country astronomical observations are made on every clear night for the express purpose of regulating an astronomical clock with the greatest exactness. Every day at noon a signal is sent to various parts of the country by telegraph, so that all operators and railway men who hear that signal can set their clock at noon within two or three seconds. People who live near railway stations can thus get their time from it, and so exact time is diffused

into every household of the land which is at all near a railway station, without the trouble of watching the sun. Thus increased exactness is given to the time on all our railroads, increased safety is obtained, and great loss of time saved to every one. If we estimated the money value of this saving alone we should no doubt find it to be greater than all that our study of astronomy costs.

It must therefore be conceded that, on the whole, astronomy is a science of more practical use than one would at first suppose. To the thoughtless man, the stars seem to have very little relation to his daily life; they might be forever hid from view without his being the worse for it. He wonders what object men can have in devoting themselves to the study of the motions or phenomena of the heavens. But the more he looks into the subject, and the wider the range which his studies include, the more he will be impressed with the great practical usefulness of the science of the heavens. And yet I think it would be a serious error to say that the world's greatest debt to astronomy was owing to its usefulness in surveying, navigation, and chronology. A celebrated philosopher said,

"In nature there is nothing great but man;

In man there is nothing great but mind."

The more enlightened a man is, the more he will be impressed with the justice of this view, and the more he will feel that what makes his mind what it is, and gives him the ideas of himself and creation which he possesses, is more important than that which gains him wealth. I therefore hold that the world's greatest debt to astronomy is that it has taught us what a great thing creation is, and what an insignificant part of the Creator's work is this earth on which we dwell, and everything that is upon it. That space is infinite, that wherever we go there is a farther still beyond it, must have been accepted as a fact by all men who have thought of the subject since men began to think at all. But it is very curious how hard even the astronomers found it to believe that creation is as large as we now know it to be. The Greeks had their gods on or

not very far above Olympus, which was a sort of footstool to the heavens. Sometimes they tried to guess how far it probably was from the vault of heaven to the earth, and they had a myth as to the time it took Vulcan to fall.⁶ Ptolemy knew that the moon was about thirty diameters of the earth distant from us, and he knew that the sun was many times farther than the moon; he thought it about twenty times as far, but could not be sure. We know that it is nearly four hundred times as far.

When Copernicus⁷ propounded the theory that the earth moved around the sun, and not the sun around the earth, he was able to fix the relative distances of the several planets, and thus make a map of the solar system. But he knew nothing about the scale of this map. He knew, for example, that Venus was a little more than two thirds the distance of the earth from the sun, and that Mars was about half as far again as the earth, Jupiter about five times, and Saturn about ten times; but he knew nothing about the distance of any one of them from the sun. He had his map all right, but he could not give any scale of miles or any other measurements upon it. The astronomers who first succeeded him found that the distance was very much greater than had formerly been supposed; that it was, in fact, for them immeasurably great, and that was all they could say about it.

The proofs which Copernicus gave that the earth revolved around the sun were so strong that none could well doubt them. And yet there was a difficulty in accepting the theory which seemed insuperable. If the earth really moved in so immense an orbit as it must, then the stars would seem to move in the opposite direction, just as, if you were in a train that is shunting off cars one after another, as the train moves back and forth you see its motion in the opposite motion of every object around you. If then the earth at one side of its orbit was exactly between two stars, when it moved to the other side of its orbit it would not be in a line between them, but each star would have seemed to move in the opposite direction.

For centuries astronomers made the most exact observations that they were able without having succeeded in detecting any such apparent motion among the stars. Here was a mystery which they could not solve. Either the Copernican system was not true, after all, and the earth did not move in an orbit, or the stars were at such immense distances that the whole immeasurable orbit of the earth is a mere point in comparison. Philosophers could not believe that the Creator would waste room by allowing the inconceivable spaces which appeared to lie between our system and the fixed stars to remain unused; and so thought there must be something wrong in the theory of the earth's motion.

Two hundred years ago, an eminent Danish astronomer, Horrebrow by name, thought he had solved the problem. With the aid of a transit instrument and a clock, a combination which was then brought into use for the first time, he found that the interval between the passage of Sirius and Vega^a over the meridian was about six seconds greater at one season than it was at the opposite season. Here was a determination which the adherents of Copernicus had awaited for more than a hundred years. So elated was he that he published his discovery under the title, "Copernicus Triumphans." But more exact investigation by other astronomers showed that the triumph was imaginary, and that the result which he got was only owing to the fact that his clock was not compensated for temperature, and so went faster during the cool hours of the night than during the warm hours of day.

Not until the nineteenth century was well in progress did the most skillful observers of their time, Bessel and Struve, having at command the most refined instruments which science was then able to devise, discover the reality of the parallax^a of the stars, and show that the nearest of these bodies which they could find was more than four hundred thousand times as far as the ninety-three millions of miles which separate the earth from the sun.

During the half century and more which has elapsed since this discovery, astro-

mers have been busily engaged in fathoming the heavenly depths. The nearest star they have been able to find is about two hundred and eighty thousand times the sun's distance. A dozen or a score more are within a million times that distance. Beyond this all is unfathomable by any sounding line yet known to man.

The results of these astronomical measures are stupendous beyond conception. No mere statement in numbers conveys any idea of it. Nearly all the brighter stars are known to be flying through space at speeds which generally range between ten and forty or fifty miles per second, some slower and some swifter, even up to one or two hundred miles a second. Such a speed would carry us across the Atlantic while we were reading two or three of these sentences. These motions take place some in one direction and some in another. Some of the stars are coming almost straight toward us. Should they reach us, and pass through our solar system, the result would be destructive to our earth, and perhaps to our sun.

Are we in any danger? No, because, however madly they may come, whether ten, twenty, or one hundred miles per second, so many millions of years must elapse before they reach us that we need give ourselves no concern in the matter. Probably none of them are coming straight to us; their course deviates just a hair's breadth from our system, but that hair's breadth is so large a quantity that when the millions of years elapse their course will lie on one side or the other of our system and they will do no harm to our planet; just as a bullet fired at an insect a mile away would be nearly sure to miss it in one direction or the other. Notwithstanding these rapid motions the constellations appear to us now just as they did to old Job. During the thousands of years which have elapsed since he wrote, the rapid motions which I have described have not sufficed to make any change in the configuration of the constellations which any one but an astronomer would notice.

Our instrument makers have constructed telescopes more and more powerful, and

with these the whole number of stars visible is carried up into the millions, say perhaps to fifty or one hundred millions. For aught we know every one of those stars may have planets like our own circling round it, and these planets may be inhabited by beings equal to ourselves. To suppose that our globe is the only one thus inhabited is something so unlikely that no one could expect it. It would be very nice to know

something about the people who may inhabit these bodies, and to see how they enjoy the warmth of their firesides. But we must wait our translation to another sphere before we can know anything on the subject. Meanwhile, we have gained what is of more value than gold or silver; we have learned that creation transcends all our conceptions, and our ideas of its Author are enlarged accordingly.

SOME CONTEMPORARY ENGLISH NOVELISTS.

BY JEANNETTE L. GILDER.

WHILE there are no Thackerays, Dickens, Scotts, or George Eliots among contemporary English novelists, there are a number of writers of fiction now living whose names will possibly be found on fame's eternal bead-roll. Many critics would place George Meredith at the head of this list,—for what reason I do not know. The Meredith cult is a mysterious thing to me, but I have to acknowledge that it exists.

Meredith's recognition has come late in life, but it has come with a vengeance. I am inclined to think that Mr. Meredith's personality is a large part of the secret of his enthusiastic following. He is a sweet-natured, large-hearted man, of simple, gentle, kindly life, and he makes friends who stay by him. Mr. Meredith's most popular novels are "Diana of the Crossways," "The Ordeal of Richard Feverel," and "The Tragic Comedians." There is a long list besides this, to which "Lord Ormont and His Aminta" is the latest addition. I may be wrong, but I cannot help feeling that the taste for Meredith is an acquired taste. His style is so utterly bad, his sentences so tortured, his meanings so obscure, that I find life too short to grapple with them. When I have finished a page of one of his stories, I know no better what he means than before reading it. I have an old-fashioned love of simplicity in writing, particularly in prose, and I find it in those masters of fiction to whom posterity has given the name of great.

I not only find Mr. Meredith's style bad, but I do not find his characters real people; and yet I have heard his admirers set up the reality of his creations as his strongest quality.

George Meredith was born on the 12th of February, 1828, and began his literary career by writing poetry. His poetry, I am bound to say, is not more lucid than his prose, but one, fortunately for one's peace of mind, does not expect lucidity from poets. It was in 1851 that Mr. Meredith first published a volume of poems. They did not meet with much success, neither did his novels when they were first issued. It was all of forty years from the time he began writing until his books received any but a very limited amount of attention. Naturally his profession did not pay him very well and he was obliged to piece out his income by becoming a publisher's reader. For a number of years he read manuscripts for Messrs. Chapman & Hall, the publishers of Thackeray and Dickens. It was in the capacity of reader that he discovered Miss Olive Schreiner and her "Story of an African Farm." Mr. Meredith has always been ready with a word of encouragement to literary beginners, and this of itself is enough to have made him hosts of friends. Mr. Meredith has been married twice, but neither of his wives is living. His only child, a daughter, was married recently to an American by the name of Sturgis, who is connected with the English banking house of Baring Brothers.

Mr. Meredith's home is on the Surrey Hills, not far from London, but he is seldom in the great busy city. He prefers the retirement of his country home. After the manner of Dickens, Mr. Meredith does his writing in a little *chalet* on his own grounds. Soon after breakfast the novelist retires to this place and spends the greater part of the day in reading and study. Like most Englishmen, he is a great walker, and he may be seen almost any day walking briskly through the lovely country around Dorking.

Mrs. Humphry Ward's great success was made in 1888 when "Robert Elsmere" was published. Before that time she had written other books, notably one called "Miss Bretherton," of which Mary Anderson, the American actress, was supposed to be the heroine. Though Mrs. Ward's fame came to her suddenly, she did not crawl in through the cabin window; she had had years of preparation and she came of a writing family. She is the grand-daughter of Dr. Arnold of Rugby, the daughter of Thomas Arnold, a man of letters, though not particularly distinguished as an author, and a niece of Matthew Arnold. In 1872 she married Mr. Thomas Humphry Ward, an Oxford man, and at that time a tutor of Brasenose College, which position he gave up later to become art critic of the London *Times*. Mr. Ward is also known as the editor of a most admirable anthology of English poets, known as "Ward's English Poets."

Mrs. Ward is not a genius, unless genius be what it has sometimes been described, "the capacity for taking infinite pains." She takes life seriously, and her books show it; she works slowly and with extreme care. I have in my possession the fourth set of page-proofs of "Marcella," which are revised from end to end in Mrs. Ward's own hand, showing that she never loses an opportunity to better what she has written. Several years are allowed to pass between her books, and she never writes without having something to say. Her novels come under the head of what are now-a-days called "purpose novels." Of all that she has written, "Robert Elsmere" still stands at the head for popularity, though "David Grieve" and

"Marcella" have been as successful commercially as the first one.

There are those who claim that Mrs. Ward has succeeded to the mantle of George Eliot, but this I do not think is true. George Eliot's mantle was made to fit her shoulders, and I do not think that anyone else will ever wear it. She had a quality that Mrs. Ward has not—that is, humor. George Eliot has both wit and humor; Mrs. Ward has neither. She has, however, a quality which a great many people appreciate, as the popularity of her novels shows, and that is earnestness. She never trifles; she takes herself seriously, and she takes her work seriously. She has always a story to tell as well as an idea to exploit. In "Marcella," her latest novel, she takes up the subject of socialism and the university settlement idea. Her own experience is said to be the foundation of the story, and I have no reason for doubting this statement. She is intensely interested in all philanthropical movements, and if there were a dash of autobiography in "Marcella," I should not be surprised.

Mrs. Ward is probably the best-paid novelist now living. Out of the three books that she has published within the past six years, she cannot have made less than two hundred thousand dollars, which only proves that the public is quick to appreciate good literature, and that sensational stories are not the only ones that achieve popularity. Mrs. Ward's home is in London, but, like most Londoners, she has her country house, which is quite as much of a home as her town house. England is a country of homes, and the person who has not one or more is singularly unfortunate.

Rudyard Kipling has succeeded by methods entirely different from those of Mrs. Ward, though, too, like hers, his fame came suddenly. He had been writing stories for a long time, in obscure quarters it must be admitted however, before fame overtook him. When it came, it came with a rush and a roar, so great a rush and so loud a roar that it was heard across the Indian Ocean, and the Atlantic Ocean too. Mr. Kipling's best work is in his short stories. I don't believe he could write a novel of the length of

"Marcella," and I don't believe that he would try. Not only does he write short stories, but even these are condensed. Any one else would make them twice as long. His speciality is condensation. He seems to wield a pruning-knife rather than a pen, and he prunes out all superfluous words and trims down what are left into the smallest space. If he should write a book as long as "Marcella," he would cut and hew it into an eighth of the space before sending it out to the public. He knows how to get infinite riches into a little room, if ever a man did.

Mr. Kipling's life has been short and uneventful, if a man's life can be said to be uneventful when he has achieved fame at five and twenty. He was born in Bombay in 1863, and is of mixed descent. His father comes of Dutch stock; from his mother he inherits English, Irish, and Scotch blood. As a small boy he went to school in England, and at sixteen he had returned to India and taken up a journalist's career. When he arrived at the distinction of a sub-editorial position on the *Indian Civil and Military Gazette*, he began to write poems and tales which were published in that paper. While he was still a young man Kipling visited the United States and wrote home for publication letters which, while they may have had the ear-marks of truth upon them, were not calculated to make friends for him in America. It was not so much what he said as the nasty way he said it, that offended good Americans; and yet Mr. Kipling really likes this country, and has made it his home. His wife is an American woman, and his baby is an American baby, having been born among the Green Mountains of Vermont. If he would only say in print the amiable things that he says in private about America, he would be much more popular here. Fortunately we are large-minded enough to forgive Mr. Kipling's gibes at our country for the sake of his genius. And we don't believe that he thinks us as black as he paints us.

Mr. Kipling's style is a model for any young writer to adopt. He is said to have modeled it upon that of Defoe, of whom he is an ardent admirer. "Plain Tales from the Hills" is the title of the book of stories

that made Kipling famous. Besides his prose, he has written ballads that put him easily first among living balladists.

Thomas Hardy's greatest successes were made by his first and last book. "Far from the Madding Crowd" brought him at once into notice; after that he published a number of other novels, but none superseded the first in popularity until two years ago, when "Tess of the D'Urbervilles" was published. Perhaps it was the fact that Mr. Hardy called this "A Pure Woman Faithfully Presented" that at once piqued criticism and discussion. The story was interesting and would no doubt have attracted attention in any event, but this red flag that Mr. Hardy waved had its effect, and the papers were filled with arguments pro and con. Personally, I do not agree with Mr. Hardy's description of "Tess," but this is neither the time nor the place to reopen the discussion. To my mind "Far from the Madding Crowd" is a better story, more interesting and healthier in tone.

Mr. Hardy, who was born in 1840, makes his home in Dorchester, in one of those unpretentious, big, comfortable English houses that are homes indeed. Of course he comes to London during the season, as does every Englishman and woman who can, and he is one of the lions of all literary gatherings. He works, however, in the country. According to a recent biographer he begins writing immediately after breakfast, and does not go out until he has finished his day's work. If, for any reason, this routine is disturbed, he is all at sea, and cannot go back again to his desk until the evening. From his study window he looks out over the "Wessex" that he has made so well known in his stories.

Mr. Hardy did not expect to be a writer after finishing his education, but had designs upon the church. Questions of dogma induced him to depart from his original intention, and then he studied architecture for a while. In the meantime a manuscript of his fell into the hands of two able critics—Mr. John Morley and Mr. Meredith—each of whom advised him to decide upon a literary career; and he followed their advice.

James Matthew Barrie, or J. M. Barrie, as

the name appears on the title-page of his books, is one of the most delightful writers of these days. His readers, and they are counted by thousands, *love* his books. They do not simply like them, they love them. There is a quality about Mr. Barrie's stories that goes straight to the heart. Over the best known, "A Window in Thrums," you laugh and cry by turns as you read its pages. You know that it is a true story, and that is why you feel it so deeply. It is the same with "Auld Licht Idylls." Both books are made from life studies, but they are not mere note-book reproductions. They are the product of a literary observation.

Mr. Barrie is clean cut in his style and almost as great a master of condensation as Mr. Kipling. One of the most amusing of this writer's books, though not one of the most popular, is "My Lady Nicotine," in which he relates the delights of pipe smoking, a habit which he is said to have indulged in to excess. "The Little Minister," Mr. Barrie's most recent novel, is almost as popular as "A Window in Thrums." It is a little too theatrical for my taste, but not for that of the general public, which has received it with loud acclaim.

Mr. Barrie was born in Kirriemuir, Scotland (since immortalized as Thrums), in 1860. He was educated first at the Dumfries Academy, and when eighteen years of age entered the Edinburgh University; and it was there that his taste for literature began to develop. Professor Masson is said to have had a strong influence over the young man, and to have done much to incline his literary bent. One result of his Edinburgh University life is a little book called "An Edinburgh Eleven," in which he gives sketches of his professors and tutors. It is not as well known as his novels, but in its way it is as unique.

Dr. Robertson Nichol, the very able editor of *The British Weekly*, a religious non-conformist paper of wide circulation, is said to have discovered Barrie. At any rate, the "Auld Licht Idylls" first appeared in that journal, and when collected were published in book form by Messrs. Hodder & Stoughton, the publishers of *The British Weekly*,

who have, I believe, published all of Mr. Barrie's novels with one exception, "The Little Minister," of which Cassell and Company were the fortunate publishers. Mr. Barrie is also the author of two successful comedies, "Walker, London," and "The Professor's Love Story." The latter is not only a capital acting play, but it is a literary play, which is a *rara avis* in these days of "farce comedies."

The name of Robert Louis Stevenson should have headed this list, if there were any method in its laying out, but there is not. I have simply written of this handful of writers as I have thought of them. In a confession as to the writing of his first book, Mr. Stevenson says that he did not make his salt in literature until he was thirty years of age, though he had worked hard at his profession up to that time. "Treasure Island," which made him famous, was written to amuse a boy, Lloyd Osbourne, I fancy, his wife's son, then a mere lad, now his literary collaborator.

Mr. Stevenson had a very hard time in the early days of his career. He was poor and in bad health. His lungs are so very weak that there are few climates that he can live in, hence his retirement to Samoa. When he first came to America he came in the steerage and he crossed the United States in an emigrant car. Uncomfortable as this must have been, particularly for an invalid, it gave him abundant material for his notes, and it gained him the object he had in undertaking it—his wife.

As essayist and story writer, Mr. Stevenson is equally successful. There is the same charm in whatever he writes—the charm of an almost perfect style. While "The Strange Case of Dr. Jekyll and Mr. Hyde" is probably the best known of Mr. Stevenson's stories, it is not the most characteristic. "The New Arabian Nights" and "An Inland Voyage" are much more to my liking.

Since those works were written Mr. Stevenson has done more ambitious work, but to my mind he has written nothing comparable to his early books. I wouldn't give "An Inland Voyage" for all the "David

Balfours" and "The Wreckers" ever written. But that is a question of taste as, I find, are most opinions.

Mr. Stevenson is a Scotchman and was born about forty-three years ago. To be born a Scotchman, he says, is "the happiest lot on earth." "Our youth is a time of tears and turmoil—but, somehow, life is warmer and closer, the hearth burns more redly, the lights of home shine softer on the rainy streets, the very names endeared in verse and music cling closer round our hearts." Mr. Stevenson was educated at Cambridge, and later studied law, but never practiced it, though somewhere there is, for I have seen it, a portrait of him in a barrister's wig. For

several years past Mr. Stevenson with his wife, his wife's son, and his own mother, has made his home in Samoa, where the climate is mild and he is only on rare occasions disturbed by the lion-hunter.

I have not attempted in this paper to give an account of all the contemporary English novelists, but merely to mention a few. All would include more than an article of this size could do justice to, and there are necessarily some conspicuous omissions, notably George Du Maurier, whom two novels have made famous in two continents, Hall Caine, S. R. Crockett, I. Zangwill, and Anthony Hope; not to mention a bevy of women who are having their little day.

GREAT CANALS.

BY A. G. MENOCAL.

THE first canals were intended for irrigation, transportation being incidental or of secondary consideration. The Great Canal of China was built more than nine hundred years ago, and is yet the main artery of communication in that country, both for freight and passengers. In Spain the Moors constructed canals for the purpose of connecting inland places with rivers, and Cadiz with Granada; but it was not until some time after the decline of the Roman Empire that canals of navigation commenced to attract attention. Previous to the introduction of locks and sluices they were limited to territories comparatively level. As far back as the twelfth century large canals had been cut in Flanders, and in 1560 the great canal connecting Brussels with the Scheldt was finished.

Locks and sluices came into practical application for the purpose of overcoming elevations, and the Briare first, and later on the Languedoc, or Midi Canals were commenced in France, the latter rising to an elevation of more than six hundred feet, by means of one hundred sluices and many important aqueducts and bridges. Other countries followed the lead, and the period of canal construction and development con-

tinued until the beginning of the nineteenth century. England was one of the last nations to go into the race. The canal of Exeter was completed in 1572, and considerable progress had been made in the meantime in improving the navigation of rivers and streams, but the time of activity in canal construction extended between 1720 and 1830, at which latter date more than four thousand miles of waterways were in successful operation.

The increased facilities of transport gave a remarkable stimulus to commercial and industrial progress. Raw materials were transported at about one tenth of what it had previously cost, thus facilitating the interchange of commodities between different parts of the country to an extent unknown before. It may be safely stated that the great industrial development and prosperity of England dates from this period of the construction of waterways.

In the United States the question of building canals that would connect the chain of Great Lakes with the ocean and with magnificent navigable rivers, penetrating thousands of miles into the interior of its vast territory, commenced to be agitated by the press, in public meetings, and in the

Legislatures of the different states early in the history of the new nation. Washington himself was one of the first to seek the improvement of transportation facilities by the construction of canals, especially one connecting Chesapeake Bay and the Ohio River, and with that object in view as early as 1754 made extensive surveys and explorations in the valleys of the Monongahela and of the Potomac. Soon after the War of Independence he obtained a charter for the construction of a waterway between the Hudson River and the Great Lakes, and was elected president of the company organized for its construction.

Other companies were subsequently formed, and several small canals were constructed, and freight intended for Lake Erie and the West was carried by way of Lake Ontario to the Niagara River, and from that point to the head of the Falls, some twenty-eight miles down the river. This route was tedious and expensive. The question of a more direct route from the Hudson to Lake Erie continued to be agitated as the only effectual solution of the problem, and in 1817 the act for the construction of the Erie Canal was passed and in 1825 the canal was completed, to the great rejoicing of the people, not only of the state but of the whole country. The canal was a great achievement of hydraulic engineering¹ at the time. It is 365 miles long, rises to an elevation of 656 feet, and has 72 locks. Its cost was \$51,600,000, raised on the credit of the state.

The opening of the Erie Canal was quickly followed by similar undertakings in the other states, especially in Pennsylvania, Ohio, Indiana, and Illinois. At one time there were over 5,000 miles of canal in operation in the United States, built at a cost of \$170,000,000. The growth of traffic in these waterways was steadily on the increase for a number of years until 1857. From this date the railroads have been constantly in the ascendance at the expense of canals, of which not less than 2,000 miles have been abandoned, while the railroad mileage has in the meantime increased to enormous proportions.

The history of the struggle between canals of small dimensions and of railroads has been the same in all countries. The fight raged bitterly for a number of years; the canals acting in the defensive, although they had as allies the states under whose patronage they were built and operated. The result has been the same in all cases, the unconditional surrender of the canals to the railroads. This, however, is not so much the fault of the system as of their management. The railroads have great advantages over canals. They are better able to abridge distances both by reason of superior speed, and of facilities for overcoming elevations, spanning streams, free from danger of destructive floods, and piercing through the highest mountains; but their great success is mainly due to the fact that they have kept up pace with the progress of the world.

Waterways built from the beginning of the eighteenth century to the first quarter of the nineteenth century were regarded ample to meet the requirements of trade at the time they were constructed, and there was in many instances a progressive improvement in their dimensions and appurtenances. But while the industrial, agricultural, and commercial developments of the world have advanced to proportions not dreamed of a century ago, canals have remained stationary. They are now obsolete and can no longer fulfill the requirements of cheap transportation in competition with railroads. The canals of the future must have the dimensions and the facilities for rapid transport to adapt them to the new conditions of commerce. They must not be barge or boat canals, but ample waterways for the free passage of such ships as are now engaged in carrying the world's trade. Of such canals we have now some important types in successful operation, and others in process of construction or in completion.

THE SUEZ CANAL.

SOME of the earliest canals of which there is any record were constructed in the Isthmus of Suez about fifteen centuries before Christ. Some centuries later from time to time other canals were opened, or were re-

constructed and reopened after being allowed to fill up, by the different rulers, the last attempt to cut a waterway from the Red Sea to the Nile being made in the seventh century by Amru ibn el Aas² in order to facilitate the transport of grain from Egypt to Mecca by the quickest route, and appease thereby the famine reigning there. One century later this canal was ordered to be destroyed by the Caliph Abou Giaffar el Mansour³ to prevent the sending of food to the insurgents of Medina. From that time nothing more was done until the beginning of the present century, when Napoleon invaded Egypt and ordered surveys of the isthmus to be made with a view to the cutting of a maritime canal. Several schemes were proposed from time to time, until De Lesseps finally adopted the sea-level canal plan for the whole distance of 103 miles.

The Suez Canal Company was incorporated in December, 1858, with a capital of \$40,000,000 divided into 400,000 shares of \$100 each. The first sod of the canal was cut in April, 1859, but two years were taken up by the necessary work of preparation, no actual progress being made in the work of excavation until the latter part of 1861. During this year the work done was chiefly confined to digging wells along the line of the canal, to erecting sheds for the workmen and providing dock basins, shops, and opening a fresh water supply by a canal joining the Nile to Lake Timsah.

The canal was commenced by forced labor, provided under the terms of the concession by the Egyptian government. In 1864, after the work had been in progress for about four years, the Egyptian government, finding the supply of from 15,000 to 20,000 of the best men in the country a serious tax on their resources, withdrew from that obligation. This step was the cause of considerable trouble between the company and the government, but the differences being submitted to the arbitrament of Emperor Napoleon, he awarded the company an indemnity of \$7,600,000.

In 1862 work was commenced on the piers at Port Said, together with landing stages; and in 1869 the canal was opened. Its

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total length from the Mediterranean to the Red Sea is 103 miles. The bottom width as originally designed was 72 feet, and the depth 26 feet. The total cost of the canal including financiering at the end of 1870 was about \$83,000,000. Of this amount only about \$58,000,000 was spent in actual work of construction. The net tonnage that passed through the canal in 1870 was 436,609 tons. In 1880 it was 3,057,421 and in 1885 it had further increased to 6,335,752 tons and in 1891 it reached the grand total of 9,200,000 tons. This extraordinarily rapid increase of tonnage and the great increase which had simultaneously taken place in the sizes of the ships passing through the canal caused a congestion of the traffic, and in 1884 a joint commission of English ship-owners and of the company was appointed to investigate the whole subject and determine what measures should be undertaken with a view to enable the waterways to meet all the requirements of a traffic exceeding 10,000,000 tons per annum. The commission reported in 1885 recommending an enlargement of the original dimensions by an increase of the bottom width to 230 feet and the depth to 29½ feet, at an estimated cost of about \$40,000,000. The works of improvement are now in progress.

By the opening of the Suez Canal, the distance between England and her Australian and Indian possessions has been lessened by distances ranging from 545 to 4,395 nautical miles, and the voyages to India, China, and Australia are now made in but little more than one half the time formerly consumed in the voyage round the Cape.

The financial success of the enterprise has exceeded the most sanguine expectations of its promoters, the stock being now quoted in the market at more than five times its par value.

The canal was an engineering triumph; not because there were any difficult engineering problems to solve in its construction, but on account of the impetus it gave to engineering invention, skill, and enterprise, the results of which have since been of incalculable value in carrying out many other works.

THE ISTHMUS OF CORINTH CANAL.

THE Isthmus of Corinth separates the Adriatic and the Archipelago, compelling all vessels bound from one sea to the other to round Cape Matapan, thus materially lengthening the voyage from the western parts of Europe to the Levant,^a Syria, Asia Minor, and Smyrna. It also increases the route from Europe to the Black Sea from which enormous quantities of wheat and other cereals are shipped to Europe. The proposition to pierce this isthmus originated several centuries before Christ; and work was actually commenced before the reign of Nero, practically upon the route occupied by the canal recently completed across that tongue of land. It is estimated that this canal will effect a saving in time of two days in the voyage from the harbors of Brinden, Ancona, and Trierba to the Levant. The probable traffic through the canal has been estimated at about 4,500,000 tons.

A concession for the construction of this canal was granted in 1870; liberal grants in the shape of lands, mineral, quarries, etc., having been made by the Hellenic government to the promoters, with the view of aiding the enterprise. The canal was not actually commenced until 1882; the first mine being fired by Queen Olga in the presence of King George, the Diplomatic Corps, and the principal government officials.

The canal was to be opened in 1888, but unforeseen delays due to financial difficulties compelled the company to obtain an extension of three years' time, and the work was not finished and opened to traffic until 1893. Whether the canal will be a financial success is doubtful, but it will be an advantage to commerce by saving 250 miles of navigation and avoiding the dangers of the coast of southern Greece.

The canal has a uniform bottom width of 72 feet and a depth of 26½ feet, which dimensions correspond to the original section of the Suez Canal. The total length is only four miles, and no passing places are regarded as necessary. There are no tide or lift locks, the waterway being at the level of the sea.

THE NORTH SEA CANAL.

THIS was built for the purpose of facilitating the navigation of the Zuyder Zee, in which vessels were frequently detained many days, or compelled to unload a part of their cargoes by reason of numerous shallows and banks. This canal, with a bottom width of 31½ feet and a depth of 18 feet, was begun in 1819 and finished in 1825. The length is about 50½ miles and the breadth, at the surface, 124 feet. At the time of its completion it was regarded as the greatest work of its kind in the world. It is now obsolete, and has been superseded by a much larger waterway.

THE AMSTERDAM SHIP CANAL.

THIS great engineering work was carried out for the purpose of improving access to the great commercial port of Amsterdam. It extends westerly, reducing the distance from that city to the North Sea to 15½ miles, instead of 50½ miles by the North Sea Canal, and giving access to vessels much larger than formerly entered that port. A new harbor has been created on the coast, comprising an area of 250 acres with a depth of 26½ feet, by the construction of two large breakwaters and by dredging.

At the entrance of the canal, from this new harbor, three locks were originally constructed and a new one much larger is now nearing completion. The canal is 197 feet wide at the water surface, 88 feet at the bottom, and has a minimum depth of 23 feet. Eastward and below the city of Amsterdam an enormous dyke shuts out the Zuyder Zee. This dyke is pierced with three locks for access to and from the canal and Zuyder Zee. The construction of these works upon a lake of mud, requiring 10,000 piles in their foundation, was a great engineering achievement. The locks at the ends of the canal are not for the purpose of locking up, but for locking down, as the surface of the canal has to be kept twenty inches below low water. In order to maintain this uniform level, pumping had to be resorted to in addition to the locks and sluices that can avail only at low tide, and the centrifugal pumps put up for that pur-

pose have an aggregate capacity of 440,000 gallons per minute. The canal and the adjacent country being below the level of the sea, its inundation can be prevented only by constant pumping of the surplus water into the Zuyder Zee. It took ten years to finish the canal.

THE BALTIC AND NORTH SEA SHIP CANAL.

THIS canal has attracted little attention thus far for the simple reason that, being a government work, it has been free from financial complications and stock manipulations. But if less important as a commercial enterprise than the Suez Canal, it is of utmost interest as an engineering undertaking and for its strategic possibilities, as well as for the great benefit it will confer upon the shipping trade of the world.

The foundation stone of this great work was laid by Kaiser William I. in October, 1888, and since then the work of construction has been pushed forward without interruption, the canal now nearing its completion, within the original estimated cost of \$49,000,000. This waterway connecting the Baltic and the North Sea will strengthen the offensive and defensive power of Germany, and at the same time enable the merchantmen of the world to avoid the long and dangerous passage by the Cattegat and round the north of Denmark.

Not less than 35,000 vessels pass through the sound annually. The loss due to storms and ice-floes reported between 1858 and 1885 is not less than 2,800 vessels, while the loss of life between 1877 and 1881 has been reported at 708. When the canal is finished, only coasting vessels will have to navigate through the dangerous channel of the sound and round the innumerable islands off the Danish and Swedish coasts. The canal begins at the dockyard of Kiel in the Baltic, and enters the Elbe near Brunsbüttel, 15 miles above the North Sea. It will have a total length of 61 miles. Its width at the water surface will be 196 feet and at the bottom 85 feet; the uniform depth being 29½ feet. The canal will be a continuous cutting at the level of the Baltic; flood-gates being provided where it enters the Eider, at Kiel and at the outlet in the

Elbe. The largest ships in the German navy will be able to pass through the canal and it is estimated that, of the 35,000 ships that annually pass through the sound, not less than 18,000 will use the waterway.

THE MANCHESTER SHIP CANAL.

THIS canal is one of the most important undertakings of the present time, not only on account of the engineering difficulties that have been dealt with or of the expenditure involved in construction, but because unlike all other ship canals already built, or in process of construction, it is designed to change a large center of population and industry from an inland city to a seaport. Whether the canal will be a financial success to shareholders is doubtful, but it will most certainly confer a great benefit to Manchester and other towns in the vicinity. This great center of industrial operation and activity, free from the onerous port dues paid at Liverpool and excessive railway rates, will soon commence to feel the great benefits conferred upon the community by the waterway; the expansion of business and consequent enhancement of values, due to economy and facility of transportation, being ample compensation for the outlay.

The canal is one continuous cutting about 35½ miles long. It begins at Eastham on the south bank of the estuary of the Mersey, and follows this bank for a distance of 13½ miles, confined by embankments and retaining walls until it reaches Runcorn, where it leaves the waters of the Mersey and by an almost direct and independent course reaches its terminus in the large docks built at Salford and Manchester. The docks at Manchester are about 65 feet above sea level. This elevation is overcome by five locks with an average lift of 13 feet each. The canal has a bottom width of 120 feet and a depth of 26 feet; the width of the water surface varying with the nature of the ground. The locks are worked by hydraulic power and are of sufficient size to admit the largest merchant steamers afloat.

The works were commenced in 1886 and the canal was officially opened amid the greatest enthusiasm by Queen Victoria and

the Prince of Wales in the presence of two million people, on May 21, 1894. The total cost of the canal, including the docks at Manchester, has been about \$75,000,000.

THE SAULT SAINT MARIE CANAL.

This canal, connecting the waters of Lake Superior and Lake Huron, is the most remarkable lock canal in the world. The fall of the Saint Mary's River at the Sault^s is about 18 feet. In 1855 a canal with two locks, each 350 feet long, 70 feet wide, and about 9 feet lift, was built to overcome that difference of level. These locks could not accommodate vessels drawing more than 11 feet of water, and their maximum capacity was soon reached by the enormously increasing traffic seeking the canal. The question of enlarging the canal and locks to admit the passage of larger vessels became a practical problem which demanded speedy solution, and resulted in the canal's being transferred by the state of Michigan to the government of the United States as a work of national importance.

The government engineers undertook the improvement of the waterway by increasing its depth to 18 feet and by the construction of a new lock 515 feet long and 80 feet wide in the chamber, and a lift of 18 feet

at mean level of water in Lake Superior. This lock, which is the remarkable feature of the canal, is regarded by competent engineers as the finest piece of hydraulic engineering in any country. Steamers of over 3,000 tons' capacity can pass through the lock inside of 20 minutes. In 1891 the traffic passing through the canal and single lock, during seven months, exceeded 10,000,000 tons of freight, or at the rate of about 20,000,000 tons a year, which is more than double the traffic passing through the Suez Canal in the same year; and yet the maximum capacity of the lock had not been reached.

The rapidly increasing traffic now threatens soon to exceed its capacity, and the government has already commenced the construction of a new lock, which is to occupy the site of the old locks. It will be 800 feet long and 100 feet wide in the chamber, with 21 feet depth of water on the sills, thus greatly exceeding the other lock in the magnitude of its dimensions. The present lock has been in practical, successful operation for more than twelve years, and its efficiency shows the marked care and skill with which all the details have been worked out.

A VISIT TO PRINCE BISMARCK.

BY SIDNEY WHITMAN.

IT has been my privilege to see a good deal of Prince Bismarck and his family during the last few years. And the way it came about may, I venture to think, be of some interest to the reader.

Partly educated in Germany, I have since, from time to time, spent many happy hours there. Thus I gradually imbibed a strong liking for that beautiful and romantic country, and was prone—perhaps at times too much so—to enlarge in conversation on the infinite variety of its characteristic attractions. The latter were doubly attractive to me from the contrast they afforded to many developments in my native land, for a proper patriotic appreciation of which my

foreign education had probably rendered me incapable. But however this may be, the fact remains that I was frequently urged to put my impressions on the subject of Germany to paper. About six years ago, I availed myself of the leisure of a prolonged holiday to write a book, which has since gained a certain publicity in several countries and various dresses, under the title of "Imperial Germany."

Through mutual friends it came to my knowledge that the book in question had been fortunate enough to attract the attention of Prince Bismarck, and in due course this led to an invitation, which I naturally hastened to avail myself of.

For many years I had made a special study of the career and personality of Germany's great chancellor. Consequently, it was with no ordinary feelings of expectation that I found myself one morning in the express train which starts from Berlin for Hamburg, and stops at Friedrichsruh only in case it carries a visitor to Prince Bismarck's household and this fact has been duly certified to the Berlin station-master before starting.

One of the prince's carriages was drawn up at the station ready to receive visitors, although the house is only a couple of hundred yards away. But just as I was on the point of stepping into it, I caught sight of Bismarck and his son Count Herbert coming toward the station. It was a warm spring day and the prince was attired in the black frock coat he always wears when not in uniform, a broad white cravat, usually known as a "choker," such as we are accustomed to see worn by clergymen or gentlemen of the old school, and a broad-brimmed black felt hat. He stood as erect as any military man in the prime of life. The kindly smile of those wondrous eyes is a sunny ray of greeting to the visitor, who is charmingly impressed by a manner as gracious as it is simple.

After the first few words of welcome, the prince led the way back to the *château*¹ and into the surrounding grounds, which are thickly wooded. The birds were chirping merrily; and I was since told that this music of nature is one of Bismarck's special delights.

Bismarck visibly brightened among his trees. "Tell me," he asked, "how did you manage to gain such an insight into the character of the Germans, particularly with regard to their weaknesses?"

"I can only venture to explain it," I an-

swered, "by recalling some London club acquaintances. On most matters they are as dull as ditch-water; but they happen to have concentrated their whole understanding on the subject of horses, and consequently they are as clever in judging a horse as any horsedealer."

"Then all I can say is," replied the prince, smiling archly, "you are a good *dealer* in men."

The subtle flattery of a Bismarck might well gratify the vanity of an exceptionally robust nature, let alone that of a susceptible writer.

We returned to the house, where Princess Bismarck was waiting in the drawing room for her husband to come in to lunch.

Princess Bismarck has been a martyr to asthma for many years, and it is often with a visible effort that she rouses herself to receive visitors at Friedrichsruh. But if there is one thing that can nerve her to overcome pain and fatigue, it is to bid welcome to those whom she believes to be fervent partisans or admirers of her great husband. No easy matter is it either to gain her faith, for she has



PRINCE BISMARCK.

seen too much behind the scenes of the great world to trust readily in the untried sincerity of anybody. On the other hand, once she takes a liking to you, she is, like her son Herbert, a staunch friend.

At meal-times, Count Herbert Bismarck assists his mother in her duties of ever attentive hostess. His is the domain of the cellar—the choice of the wines—and his good humor, merry sallies and laughter, go a long way toward making a lunch or dinner at Friedrichsruh a function to be remembered with gladness.

Count Herbert Bismarck is little understood in the country of his birth except by those who enjoy the privilege of his friend-

ship. There where political passion is apt to invade private life, and color personal likes and dislikes so much more than in England, it was perhaps only natural that the son of a Bismarck, placed early in life in high position, should have afforded a welcome target for the shafts of rancorous enmity. And more readily so, as he has undoubtedly inherited the quick, spontaneous, receptive nature of his mother for sympathy or antipathy. One who knows him well once told me: "Herbert Bismarck may occasionally be curt to an acquaintance, but he is a true friend."

Count Herbert is said to have been a hard taskmaster at the Foreign Office. Of this I am, of course, unable to judge—nor could I readily believe it of one whom I know to be a devoted son and husband, and of whose popularity with the humblest of his dependents in his ancestral home I have often been witness. Perhaps the highest testimony to Herbert Bismarck's character is furnished by those who had ample opportunities of watching him closely in private life—during the years of official place and position in Berlin, when all the world of both sexes was ever sunny to the high-placed son of the all-powerful chancellor. I have found that these witnesses uniformly testify to his unaffected, genuine simplicity of heart, allied to a healthy contempt for adulation, the source of which he was always clear-sighted enough to discern.

On one occasion, happening to be alone with Prince Bismarck, the conversation turned on the charges of favoritism brought against the chancellor. I was agreeably surprised at the philosophical good humor with which the prince willingly entered upon a subject in private, which he has always held beneath his dignity to notice publicly. "Was it not natural," he said, "that I should turn to the one nearest to me, in whom I could trust implicitly, as a repository for and help in many important responsibilities and work I was burdened with during so many years?"

The fact is that a deal of the personal enmity Herbert Bismarck has been the object of is intimately connected with a lurid

feature of public life in our time. Where the arts of so-called popularity are usually manipulated with a cunning worthy the production of a successful advertisement for soap, a Herbert Bismarck is entirely out of place—truly a square peg in a round hole. No honied words to an eager interviewer from him, not even if the refusal—as has been often the case—should entail a subsequent cataract of malicious abuse. No after-dinner unctuous platitudes from one who, whatever his failings, has instinctively learnt by heart the advice of Polonius:

"This above all,—to thine own self be true;
And it must follow, as the night the day,
Thou canst not then be false to any man."

In a roundabout way—as is often the case in this tortuous world of ours—that which is "true" has already exacted recognition. It is significant that of late a number of men of many parties have come to look upon Herbert Bismarck, not only with sympathy but with confidence as well. Among these men are many who by no means share his political views. But there is something deeper than the mere faith in certain political measures, which, amid a world of self-advertising trickery, instinctively attracts us toward that which can claim the possession of the one rare attribute,—character. Also there are many practical men in the Fatherland to-day who are of opinion that Herbert Bismarck might yet—if he likes—have a prominent political future before him. But those who know him best aver, that ambition—particularly that kind which partakes of a largely personal character, is about the last thing Herbert Bismarck is likely to be troubled with. At present he lives at Schönhausen with his young wife and family, whence he rarely strays, except to visit his parents or to go to Berlin when the Reichstag is sitting.

But while I have been musing, lunch is over and everybody retires to his room previous to gathering again for an afternoon stroll, ride, or drive in the neighborhood.

The whole first floor of Friedrichsruh Schloss³ consists of a number of visitors' rooms, the only small one of which is usually occupied by Count Herbert. Otherwise

they are all large lofty rooms, plainly but cosily furnished. Interesting engravings and photographs of eminent persons adorn the walls. One of the best rooms is that which was usually occupied for months at a time by the late privy councilor Lothar Bucher, Bismarck's house-friend and right-hand man for many years at the Foreign Office. It contains a good number of books, many of them full of marginal notes in Bismarck's handwriting. Everything has a comfortable homely stamp in these rooms; even down to the old French moderator lamps, which are lit every evening and cast their soft light on the writing-table, where pens and paper are regularly placed for the convenience of the guests.

As is well known, Prince Bismarck leads the life of a country gentleman in his retirement, besides keeping a watchful eye on the political goings-on in the world. Not from choice perhaps, this latter, but because, from long force of habit, he cannot refrain from following with absorbing interest what has been the loadstar of his life. As I once heard him say: "Formerly I had a lot of hobbies, foremost among which was shooting. But in course of time politics swallowed them all up, as a big trout swallows up the little trout." Also, persons—outside his own family—whoever they be, seem to inspire but a transitory if not superficial interest in one who, all his life long, has held persons—however exalted or distinguished—as subordinate to "things,"—"things" with him meaning the affairs of the state, the steering apparatus of the ship, the eternal uncertainties and dangers of wind and weather: to him, the weather-beaten Pilot of Teuton Nationality!

"Will you take a drive with me?"

"With all my heart, Your Highness."

We are soon in the woods. The coachman knows his master's partialities and unbidden quickly leaves the high road to drive on to the soft forest turf among the lofty trees. The deer and wild-boar scamper off as we invade their domain and find our way as best we can up and down hill on the pathless virgin forest floor. It even happens that we lose our way and are suddenly face

to face with a running stream, the opposite bank of which affords no room for horses or carriage. We have to alight, to enable the horses to drag the carriage more easily back to the paths of civilization. Prince Bismarck loves to discuss all phases of country life during his drives; and now and then, if free from his persecuting enemy neuralgia, will occasionally draw from his endless store of interesting personal reminiscences. All this tends to make a drive in his company an experience to be treasured.

We pass a man on the road who seems ailing.

"Did you notice how ill that man looks?" he queries. "I wonder where he lives?"

And the coachman is bidden to stop at several peasant houses to inquire; but none can tell us whence the pallid stranger hails. Bismarck has a kindly heart in private life, when not engaged in annihilating a political antagonist. Such are the psychological mysteries in the composition of some of the world's great men. I do not think Bismarck could say an unkind word to his son Herbert. He suddenly heard, in 1879, after the dreadful 18th of August before Metz, that both his sons had fallen in battle. The father rushed to inquire after his sons, but the statesman could not allow himself to be unnerved, even by so dire a calamity. In the words of the German ballad:

*Mein Sohn ist wie ein anderer Mann—
Frisch vorwärts in den Feind.*

(My son is like another man. Up, onward toward the foe.) Princess Bismarck has never, up to the present day, been able to forget those dreadful hours of suspense.

Prince Bismarck, if not less sensitive, is more philosophical. In his presence, you feel that a great statesman cannot afford himself the luxuries of sentiment legitimately cultivated by humbler mortals. He need not necessarily be less human than they, but his work calls for a certain something beyond that possessed by average humanity.

It is generally reported that Prince Bismarck is a rich man and this surmise has afforded some of his less amiable compatriots food for one of their sturdiest grievances against the great statesman. "He has made

his patriotism pay him well," they chuckle.

"There is nothing some of my enemies find so difficult to forgive as my crime of having become a wealthy man. Well, I suppose I must admit that I have been fairly successful in a material worldly sense; I even wonder at it myself at times. For if I look back I feel my wants were not extravagant. As long as I have a chair and a table and something overhead to keep the rain off, I feel I could be happy."

It would be almost an impertinence to affirm that which is, of course, self-understood,—that Prince Bismarck never benefited personally by what many men in his exalted position would have considered legitimate opportunities for investment. And nobody was so fully cognizant of the fact as his *homme d'affaires*,⁴ the late Baron Bleichröder, the Berlin banker. It is even said that the unbounded personal admiration Bleichröder ever felt for the prince was largely due to his accurate knowledge of Bismarck's lofty impersonal character in money matters.

On one occasion, Bismarck's oversensitive feeling of punctilio even led to his losing a very large sum of money, as I learned years ago from an unimpeachable source. The prince had invested his ready money in the funds of a certain country, in the prospects and good faith of which he always had unshaken belief. Diplomatic circumstances, however, arose, which in no way affected the credit of this said country, but which caused the prince to feel that it was not consistent with his position to hold these securities any longer. So he disposed of them, against the urgent advice of Baron Bleichröder, at a great loss, which he never recovered. But even more than this. Far from being the shrewd administrator of his large estates he is reputed to be, Bismarck has often gratified his hobbies as a country gentleman at the expense of his pecuniary interests as a landowner, and has spent large sums of money unproductively. In fact, although the nominal value of the Bismarck estates may be roughly put down at

between eight and ten million marks,⁵ the income derived therefrom just enables him to live in the well-to-do, but by no means lavish manner he has been accustomed to for so many years. This is, however, after all, anything but according to the standard of a rich man in his position. In truth, I should not be surprised to learn that among the intimates of his household several—for instance, his famous physician and a certain great painter—can show a larger income than the far-famed architect of German Unity with all his broad acres, his royal and national endowments.

The daily life of the Bismarck family has been so often and adequately described in detail, that I cannot bring myself to enlarge further on the subject on this occasion. One little trait must close my story!

It is evening at Friedrichsruh, and the family is gathered together in the drawing-room. The prince is usually reclining on the sofa and scanning the newspapers, a huge pencil in hand, with which he marks the passages that interest him. These pencils are quite a feature of the establishment, for as sure as a number of visitors have been to Friedrichsruh during the day, a scarcity of pencils sets in toward night. "Where are the pencils?" is the cry, when Princess Bismarck, ever intent on the slightest move of her husband, notices him silently looking round, his large eyes peering weirdly into space—evidently looking for his indispensable pencil. Ah, those hero-worshippers have again cleared the board of the famous Bismarck pencils! Such is one of the minor penalties of greatness, that you are not safe in your own house from the relic hunter.

But I have known a famous musician far more fortunate than the pencil pilferers! He had made himself particularly agreeable to the ladies by his music, and when he left he carried away in triumph and glee an old felt hat of Bismarck's. There are many men left in Germany to-day who would gladly have come from afar in order to take back that old hat with them!

(End of Required Reading for December.)

EVELYN MOORE'S POET.*

BY GRANT ALLEN.

CHAPTER I.

SHE met him at Venice—in the gallery of the Campanile in the Piazza of St. Mark's.

Her mother had refused to go up to the summit with her. "My dear Evelyn," Mrs. Moore said testily, with the querulousness of old age, "how can you ever expect me, at my time of life, to get to the top of that dreadful tower?"

"I *don't* expect you, mother dear," Evelyn answered with a sigh: she was twenty-seven and romantic; "but how can you expect me to go away from Venice without having seen the view from the Campanile? You can sit on one of those nice chairs by the café over yonder, and watch the crowd. I won't be gone long; just look about and wait for me."

It was Evelyn's first visit to Venice, and she was charmed with everything—the gondolas, the pigeons, St. Mark's, the Doge's Palace, the dark women in the street, the red sails, the green water. So she mounted the Campanile with eager feet; such an easy ascent, too; no horrid stone steps, but a continuous inclined plane of smooth worn bricks, gently winding round and round, and so very well lighted! At the top, she emerged on the square gallery of the platform. All Venice glowed at her feet in refulgent sunshine. The five cupolas of St. Mark's, the red tower of San Giorgio, the myriad spires of the town, the vast dome of the Salute! For a moment, Evelyn held her breath, dazed with excess of pleasure. It was all so lovely! The oriental magnificence of the golden mosaics, the fantastic effect of the gilt-winged angels on the Gothic pinnacles, the Byzantine glories of the vast façade, the arcades of the Loggia, the twin pillars of the Piazzetta—bursting upon her all at once, they fairly made her heart stop! And then, the serpentine curve of the Grand Canal, For-

tuna's gilded ball on the Dogana di Mare, Nero's gilt horses above the portal of the great church, the Gindecca stretching map-like over the lagoon to the south, the snowy dells and penciled lines of the Tyrolese Alps sun-smitten to northward! It was too much for one first view. She drew back, half paralyzed by it.

"How lovely!" she murmured, half aloud, gazing down from the parapet at the roofs and domes of the magic city, threaded by silver lanes of gleaming water. "How perfect! How exquisite!"

"Yes, it *is* exquisite!" a clear and cultivated English voice broke in beside her. "Especially this afternoon! A divine October day! Such glorious sunshine! Such unusual clearness! I come up here twice a week; but never before in three years of Venice have I seen the Istrian Mountains, beyond the Adriatic, with their furrowed snows, so magnificently lighted up by the pale rose of sunset."

"It's my first visit," Evelyn answered, leaning for support on the parapet, and just glancing at the stranger. He was a comely young man, say thirty or thereabouts, with light straw-colored beard cut daintily to a point, and a supple thin figure, very tall and athletic looking.

"Oh, indeed," the stranger answered, drawing his beard through his hand and caressing it gently, "then you're fortunate in your first glimpse of this glorious view. Such pink light is rare, even here in Titian's Venice."

"How lucky!" Evelyn replied, turning away toward the other side, partly because she wanted to take in the whole bird's-eye picture undisturbed; but partly, too, from a vivid sense of British respectability. The perfect lady mustn't yield to conversation with a casual stranger in a brown tweed suit, no matter how handsome, well-bred, and gentlemanly, whom she meets by pure chance

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on the top of a Campanile! She was a pretty woman; and she knew how to take care of herself.

But the young man with the pointed beard was not thus to be balked of his new acquaintance.

"You have no glasses," he said, following her, and offering her his own, which were of bright aluminium. "These are very powerful. If you've never been up here before, you won't know the different buildings, or the lagoons and islands. So many of the churches seem quite different from above. From the canals and *campi*, you see only the doorways and the marble façades; from this height on the other hand you look down upon nothing but brick walls and tiled cupolas."

Evelyn accepted the proffered glasses with somewhat doubtful grace. She wasn't quite certain whether 'twas quite proper to take them. She had been brought up at Clapham, in the strictest sect of their religion, a Grundyite. But the young man was so attentive and had such a sweet suave voice that she hardly thought it could be so wrong after all to talk to him. As she gazed through the glasses from point to point, he kept following the direction of her glance with his eyes, and describing to her one by one the different islets and channels.

"That's San Lazzaro over yonder," he said, "with the Armenian monastery; such an interesting place: has an oriental library. The smaller islands in the foreground are Saint'Elena and San Servolo; and beyond them you can just see the high bank of the Lido. The church on the nearest island, with the basin in front, is San Giorgio Maggiore; I always admire its red brick campanile—so honest and workmanlike—with the bells showing through, and the marble top stuck just where it's wanted for constructive effect to complete the picture. They call it Maggiore, you see, to distinguish it from the other one, San Giorgio degli Schiavoni—Saint George of the Slavonians, over yonder to eastward. He was always a great saint here in Venice, was St. George; oriental, you know, very; that's St. George of the Greeks with the slender campanile jutting

out just in front of it. Plenty of Georges, big, little, or middle-sized, everywhere that the Byzantine influence penetrates; and Venice, of course, is essentially a bit of the Byzantine Empire isolated by pure chance on this side of the Adriatic. There's the Saint himself (you can make him out, I dare say) in gilded armor flamboyant in the sun on top of the dome of San Giorgio Maggiore; he's always in armor,—a most warlike man of God, representing the church militant—exactly as you know him on our own half-crowns, engaged with his short sword in demolishing the dragon. You've read about him in Gibbon, no doubt, I suppose. What, no? Well, you ought to then. It's all most interesting."

This was just the sort of conversation Evelyn loved to hear. It flattered her vanity. Without being quite above her range of comprehension, it gave her a vague sense of moving for the moment in literary society. She felt she was really learning something. The stranger was well-informed, and obviously eager to impart his information to a ready listener. He teemed with facts about Sansovino and Bellini. Before he had finished he had told his pretty friend at full length what Gibbon had to say about the knightly saint, and what the orthodox critics had to say about Gibbon's theory. He had explained to her Clermont-Ganhean's abstruse affiliation of the Cappadocian George on the Egyptian Horns. He had discoursed most pleasantly of the Slavonian merchants, who gave their name in old time to one of the many St. Georges, and to the Riva degli Schiavoni. He had waxed eloquent on the medieval Venetian trade with the ports of the Black Sea and the Esterlings of the Baltic. He had taught her so much, in fact, that Evelyn's poor head was in a perfect whirl, with it. She carried away from all he said some vague flitting phantasmagoria of Doge Dandolo's cap and Queen Catherine of Cyprus, of Romanesque arches and Venetian Gothic, of the porphyry knights at the corner of the Piazzetta, and the Runic inscriptions on the lions of the Arsenal. Yet the stranger was so pleasant and so soft-toned withal that as she listened she thought she

must remember every word of it. He had put everything so gracefully and in such simple words that even the unlearned and untraveled like herself could easily understand him.

Just at the last—when Evelyn was beginning to feel she really *must* go now, or mother would be so angry—the stranger, looking down upon the carved capitals of the columns in the piazza below, quoted half to himself some melodious lines of English poetry. They were beautiful, Evelyn thought; and indeed she was right; many critics of fine taste, both before and since, have stamped them with their approval.

"How lovely," she said timidly, glancing back at his frank face as he passed the pale straw-colored beard through his hand once more, and looked curiously hard at her. "Whose are they, I wonder?"

The handsome young man gave a faint little start of surprise and pleasure. "My own," he said simply. "I'm so glad you like them."

Evelyn drew back, and cast down her hazel eyes, half alarmed. She was unaccustomed as yet to the society of authors. "Your own!" she repeated taken by surprise. "Oh, how awfully nice! Then I suppose you're a poet."

"I write verses," the young man answered with modest reserve. "Verses—and plays. They've been favorably received in London and elsewhere. Very favorably indeed. Well, yes, I suppose, I may even go so far as to call myself a poet."

He said it with such evident native bashfulness, yet with an undercurrent of manly and not unbecoming pride, that Evelyn for her part was simply charmed with him. Little as she was accustomed to trust her own judgment in matters of art, she felt sure in her own mind that the verses the young man had just recited to her were genuine poetry. And, emboldened by his modesty, she said so, frankly.

The young man's eyes flashed unspoken gratitude. "Oh, I'm so glad you think them good," he answered, leaning across toward her and beaming. "It's encouraging to be praised. Praise is the best spur. It leads

one on to do more. We none of us get too much of it."

"But you said your poems and plays had been so well received," Evelyn interposed, half doubtful.

The young man drew himself up very proud and erect, and a shade passed momentarily over his handsome features. "Oh, yes, *well received*," he said, with a curious emphasis. "Very well received, indeed. Most cordially applauded. But that, after all—well, you know, that's not everything."

He let his soft voice drop, with a studied air of mystery. Every syllable sounded as distinct as a bell. Evelyn was longing to know what his words could mean—especially as he looked at her with a pathetic glance that invited inquiry and the chance of explanation. But just at that moment, her eye fell by accident on her mother below, gazing about among the dense crowd with fidgety apprehension. The daughter's conscience pricked her. "I must go," she said hurriedly, handing the young man back his luxurious opera-glasses. "My mother's waiting for me below. I've left her too long. I'm so much obliged to you for the use of these—and for the very kind way you've pointed everything out to me."

The stranger looked disappointed. His face fell suddenly. He had missed one chance. But he raised his hat none the less with a born courtier's grace. "Good afternoon," he said, bowing low; and his bow was instinct with old-fashioned courtesy. "I'm glad to have been of service to a lady in any way." He paused for a second; then he added, with grave dignity, "Perhaps I may be fortunate enough to meet so appreciative a critic again to-morrow."

"Perhaps," Evelyn answered with an inclination of the head, hardly knowing if she did right to encourage him so far. Though she feared it wasn't likely. And indeed she descended the inclined plane with a passing pang of distinct regret at the thought that she would probably never again meet him.

CHAPTER II.

EVELYN'S mind was full of the young man with the pointed beard for the whole of the

evening, and all night long. To say the truth, her path had not hitherto been strewn with poets; and now she had found one, she was inclined to make the most of him. She regretted so much she hadn't asked him his name. She might have ordered his poems and plays from London. Or perhaps they were in the *Tanchints*; and if so, of course, she could even have got them without delay in Venice. But now the chance was gone; the critical moment was lost; and the uncertainty as to who the unknown singer might be would pursue her for a lifetime.

He was Somebody,—of that at least she was perfectly sure. Quite undoubtedly Somebody. There was an impressiveness in his grave smile, a solemn dignity in his pointed beard, a modesty in his clear and well-modulated voice, that at once acclaimed him something above the mere common poetaster. Only a man of mark could have admitted with such frank grace, with such conscious worth, yet with such retiring simplicity, the gentle impeachment of being a real live poet. And a real live poet he was, so Evelyn said to herself a hundred times over between one and three in the morning. His figure had by that time assumed heroic proportions. Quite unconsciously to herself indeed, Evelyn was falling in love with him.

Next day, after her early coffee, she strolled out by herself (as her Baedeker bid) into the Square of St. Mark's. Her mother was tired, and didn't want to walk till after luncheon. So, red guidebook in hand, Evelyn made her way dutifully by devious paths into the marvelous atrium of that queen of churches, and began spelling out with nicest care, as best she might, the meaning of the mosaics in the outer vestibule. For in her own blind way, like most others of her kind, she was eager after culture, and wished to learn all she could from this one Italian tour, the first and last, in all likelihood, that would ever be vouchsafed to her. But, Oh, how curt and lifeless good Herr Baedeker seemed with his cut-and-dried facts, after the rich living voice of yesterday evening on the Campanile! In vain she tried to solve those quaint riddles in gilt glass. They evaded

her elusively. She longed for the handsome stranger with the straw-colored beard to read for her the enigma of those world-old cupolas!

As she stood there, puzzling hard over Noah and his vine, her eyes rooted on the ceiling, a delicate voice at her side made her start with astonishment. "You should begin at the far right," it said in bell-like tones, "not to the left, as usual. The history's told the opposite way from the way you read: it begins at the end there. The Creation's in the first dome; the Deluge in the second; Father Abraham in the third; and so on through the rest of the Old Testament legend."

Evelyn's face shone with unaffected delight. This was really providential. She greeted the stranger like an old friend recovered, as he paused and raised his hat, half surprised himself at his own temerity in so boldly accosting her. "Oh, how nice," she said, frankly holding out one gloved hand. "Now you'll be able to tell me what it's all of it driving at. That's the making of Adam, I can see, overhead; but she doesn't look like Eve, the winged figure beside him."

"Oh, no," the young man answered, gazing above with eager eyes at the stiff and beautiful old Byzantine figures. "Why should Eve have wings? She was a woman, just like you, only—not half so interesting. Besides, if you'll look close, you'll see Eve's being taken a little farther on, out of Adam's right side, in a separate compartment. This is earlier in the scenes. That's the Lord, you notice, who had made Adam with His hands out of plastic clay, exactly like a sculptor; and the little winged figure He holds to Adam's mouth is the soul of man, as yet untabernacled. The Lord is just going to breathe into Adam's nostrils the breath of life, and man will then become a living soul, as you read in the Scriptures. See how frankly and naively the old artificers conceived the gist of the passage! The Lord stuffs the soul down Adam's throat in as literal a sense as one might stuff down a bolus."

Evelyn saw he was right at once—though

she herself would never have guessed it. But the knowledge delighted her. Quite willingly she committed herself into the stranger's hands to be led about the building. He had nothing to do, he said, and would be charmed to show her round, and explain what he could to her. "I can verge," he said, laughing, "I know almost every stone in St. Mark's by heart, and if you care to hear, I shall be proud of such a listener."

Evelyn felt raised in her own esteem by the handsome stranger's apparent partiality. Young men at home, at Clapham, with less than half his brains (not to speak of the pointed beard), affected to think lightly of her feminine intellect. This clever young poet, the ablest and nicest man she had ever yet met, was all courtly deference and polite appreciation. Nothing pleases a woman so much as to find she can talk her best to the cleverest man. His quickness to seize and to put into words what she leaves half unexpressed makes her seem abler than she is, and so flatters her soul with the subtlest flattery.

She followed him round the portico, drinking in at every pore the knowledge he flashed in upon her. He made her see everything. The strange old figures in Byzantine attitudes seemed to live at his word upon their golden backgrounds. The stories in dumb show on the pictured arches seemed to enact themselves afresh at his explanations. The animals that waddled, two and two, into the ark; the dove that flew, wooden, across the solid waters; the builders who fell out over the tower of Babel—she read them all now with the true eye of faith in their twelfth-century simplicity. Then her poet, nothing loth, led her passive round the church, inside and out, chapels, sacristy, and gallery. He paused by the spiral alabaster column that came from Solomon's Temple at Jerusalem, he showed her the golden pall that covers the very bones of the second Evangelist, he pointed out the short square pillars, deeply scored with inscriptions in mystic Greek characters, "conveyed, the wise call it," he said with a queer smile, "from the demolished church of St. Saba at Ptolemus."

Evelyn drank it all in with wondering delight; 'twas so charming to be treated on terms of such perfect intellectual equality by so learned a personage.

"How well you know Venice!" she exclaimed at last, as she stood with her back to the Doge's Palace gazing up at the ornate south front of St. Mark's with its encrusted portico. "You seem to me to have learned every stone of it."

"Why, of course," the young man answered looking half surprised at so simple a remark; "I almost consider the Rialto my own, the scene of one of my very best-known plays is laid in the city."

"Not 'The Gondoliers'?" Evelyn put in somewhat hastily, glancing with vague alarm at so distinguished a playwright. Mr. Gilbert must surely be much more than thirty.

"No, *not* 'The Gondoliers'!" the young man replied with a half contemptuous smile. "Though it's had a longer run," he added after a pause, "on the London boards than any of those slight things of Gilbert's and Sullivan's."

He spoke with such confidence and such a studied air of high intellectual disdain that Evelyn was half afraid her suggestion had offended him. Clearly, she thought to herself, he must be somebody *very* distinguished. And, indeed, in the course of the morning, the young man quoted more than once a few verses of his own, from one of his Italian dramas, which she recognized as possessing the truest and highest ring of dramatic poetry. So eager was she to discover his identity, indeed, that she was quite relieved when at parting he asked her politely if he might learn her name. Evelyn gave it him, all trembling, with a droop of the long dark lashes. The young man in return pulled out a Russia leather card-case, and presented her with a card. She gazed at it, hardly knowing what distinguished poet she ought most to expect. 'Twas with a faint little start of surprise and disappointment that she read the simple words, "Mr. William Sperling."

She had never heard of him!

For a moment, she regretted it was no better known man. Next instant, her heart,

loyal to him already, had made answer to her doubts, "What matters his name? What matters his fame? Those are both extraneous. He is what he is. If not famous as yet, he must be one day. Or if never at all, still none the less great because not famous."

Swiftly as all this passed through her mind, however, her poet yet noted it with the instinctive quickness of the poetic temperament. "You never heard my name before," he said, looking down at her hurriedly with a strange air of anxiety.

Evelyn rose to the occasion. "No, I never heard it before," she answered with a frank smile; "and I was so perfectly sure you were some one very great, both from your verses and your talk, that I fully expected to recognize it at once as very familiar. All the more so as I'm sure I've heard or read somewhere some of the lovely verses you repeated to me this morning."

The young man was standing, hat in hand, in the Piazzetta to bid her adieu. He ran his fingers for a moment through his hair, and flung it picturesquely off his high white forehead. "I expected as much," he said, with an abstracted air, fixing his clear blue eyes on her. "I'm seldom recognized, indeed. I may almost with truth say never." Then he added after a short pause, "But that's not the name under which I publish my poems and plays. I adopt a pseudonym."

"What is it?" Evelyn cried, now burning with curiosity. She could remember no playwright of the present day—especially one so young—who seemed to her mind to fulfill for a moment all the requirements of the situation. But then, she knew so little of the world of literature.

The young man, however, only smiled once more that enigmatic smile of his, and handed her with grave and deferential care into the gondola he had called for her. "Ah, no," he said smiling, and shaking his head with grave solemnity. "That would be to tell you too much,—and too soon, I think. Some other day, perhaps—" he waved his hand gracefully.

"Whither, Signor?" the gondolier asked, looking up at him and bowing.

"Whither, Signora?" the poet echoed, with a laugh.

"To the Hotel Britannia," Evelyn answered, with half a blush, feeling vaguely ashamed of so prosaic an address in that romantic Venice.

"And I," the young man answered, as if to complete the introduction, "have apartments of my own—very nice little rooms—on the Fondamenta delle Zattera."

He raised his hat once more with a regretful air. He *was* so handsome! As the gondola glided away by the Royal Gardens, Evelyn saw him still standing there, bareheaded and abstracted. She was really in love with him now; no use in denying the fact; and it occurred to her in a flash that he too—well, perhaps, he too was in love with her. She was pretty and intelligent; and then, of course, a poet's fancy!

CHAPTER III.

At the Britannia that evening, Evelyn was sitting at *table d'hôte* a little disconsolate at the thought that she might never again, perhaps, behold her unknown singer. Her mother sat next her, with a little black shawl round her ample shoulders, and Evelyn had turned toward her, to combat for the twentieth time since she crossed the Channel the maternal suspicions against the soup of the Continent. While she was engaged in that hopeless task, somebody glided in, unperceived, along the parquet floor, and took the vacant seat next her. When she turned to her place again, she gave a start of surprise, while a conscious flush rose hot to her very forehead. "What, you, Mr. Sperling!" she cried, scarcely able to contain herself. "I thought you said you had permanent rooms of your own on the Fondamenta delle Zattera!"

"So I have," the poet answered, with apologetic shyness, fixing his eyes on his napkin. "Very nice little rooms, which I've furnished and decorated. But I fancied—well, you see, Miss Moore, it's lonely to be always by myself in lodgings; so I decided just for once to come to the hotel and seek a little society."

"Then you're dining here to-night?" Evelyn asked, secretly flattered. He trembled for the answer.

The poet looked embarrassed. "I've taken rooms here for the present," he answered, playing idly with his bread. "I—eh—I mean to keep them as long—as long as I find it comfortable."

He glanced meaningly at Evelyn as he spoke. She understood him perfectly—her heart gave one wild bound. This was too good to be true. Her poet meant to stop there as long as she did.

All through dinner that night, Evelyn lived and moved in the seventh heaven. How cold and formal it seemed, that conventional introduction—"Mother dear, this is Mr. Sperling, who, I told you, was so kind to me at St. Mark's this morning." Her mother turning round, took him in from head to foot with a stony matronly British stare. But what was that to Evelyn? Her singer had come there on purpose that he might sit by her side: and he talked to her all through dinner—ah, heaven, how he talked! she knew now what it meant, that biblical phrase about speaking with the tongues of men and angels; for his voice was low and sweet, and his words were exquisite.

After dinner, they went into the *salon*. Mrs. Moore took up Galignani, and ensconced herself comfortably in an easy chair. Galignani indeed, in place of the poet's bright talk! Yet Evelyn was glad of it. She wanted him all to herself, in the corner by the garden, that opens out upon the Grand Canal and the beautiful moonlit water.

She wanted him, and she got him. He sat and talked to her in his melodious voice. Through the trellised window, they could just catch glimpses now and again of wandering gondolas upon the silvery channel, gondolas that glided by with colored lanterns at their prows, and women in light wraps stretched at full length beneath the awnings. Santa Maria loomed large against the twilight sky; vague sounds of singing voices floated in upon them, as they sat, from a *barca* just opposite.

"How long will you stop here?" Evelyn

asked, at a pause in the conversation. She trembled for the answer.

"How long will *you*?" the poet answered, growing bold, and gazing across at her inquiringly.

Evelyn's heart beat high. Her full bosom heaved and fell.

"I don't quite know," she answered, dropping her voice. "We *intended* a week. But perhaps—if we like the place, I might persuade my mother to stop a little longer."

"Then *I* stop as long as *you* stop," the poet said boldly. "Do please be persuasive." He was feeling his wings now. This one woman understood him.

The *barca* drew nearer, with Chinese lanterns all aglow; it paused pensive just in front; women's voices floated soft across the waters of the canal, singing gay Venetian serenades with just an occasional undertone of Italian melancholy. Evelyn and the poet broke off their talk and listened. What more seductive than music, heard at night, by two together? At last, as the voices finished, the poet burst in once more.

"You sing yourself," he said quietly and confidently, "I'm sure of it. I can see it untold. There's a noticeable fullness in your throat that always betrays the born songstress."

"Yes, I sing,—a little," Evelyn answered, well pleased that he should have noticed her peculiarities so closely, and without further demand, not waiting for the airs and graces of Clapham society, she rose from her chair at once and sat herself down at the hotel piano.

Oh, how glad she was then that she had spent so many weary years in cultivating what voice kind Nature had bestowed upon her! For she sang really well, and to-night, under pressure of so unwonted a stimulus, her throat seemed to flow and trill as she herself had never before known it. Love is a mighty master of music to mortals.

As for the poet, he leaned over her, drinking it in delighted. When she finished, his eyes met hers and murmured a mute, "Thank you."

For a moment, he said nothing; then

he bent down and uttered in a very low voice three lines of poetry :

"If music be the food of love, play on ;
Give me excess of it ; that, surfeiting,
The appetite may sicken and so die."

Evelyn glanced up at him with one hand just quivering over the notes on the keyboard. "Your own?" she asked in a tremulous voice.

The poet nodded assent. "From one of

my best plays," he said. "You've never seen it?"

"I don't think so," Evelyn answered, arching her eyebrows in doubt. "But tell me the name of it."

The poet shook his head. "No, not yet," he said slowly, with a very resigned air. "It wouldn't do just now. You might be just like the others." And he relapsed for

a moment into meditative silence.

(To be concluded.)

A CONCLUSION.

BY W. P. STODDARD, M. A.

FROM stormy Alpine height and frosty peak,
Where wildest winds their weirdest language speak,
From yawning chasm, dark in deep abyss,
Where plunging torrents rush and roar and hiss,
From frozen earth and bleakest wintry height,
Where glacier, scarred and wrenched, in lazy might
As, urged by snows beyond, asunder tears
The mighty rock and on its bosom bears
It to the stream,—we haste away, o'er gorge
Sublime and sunny mead, to Vulcan's forge,
Where 'mid the mighty fires and belching haze
Vesuvian, we halt awhile to gaze
In rapt delight and dread.

"Tis ever so.

This changeful life—in playful jest and mood,
Or savage, stolid visage fierce and rude—
To-day gives joy and cheer, serene and bright.
To-morrow clouds and storms are on. The light
That glows and beams effulgent on the way
In radiant shafts of love and hope to-day,
Is soon dispelled, while fiery trials burn
And scorch the flowers of peace. 'Tis then we yearn
For pastures green and limpid streams of rest
Beyond the ken of pain, in regions blest
Of God.

Ah me, if ever faith should fail,
And life at best prove only one sad wail
Of woe!

It is not so. The path of earth
Is strewn with flowers sweet and rare. No dearth
Of joy e'er mars the life of him who wears
His joy *within*, where reigns the love that bears
A Christ enthroned. To him, nor cloud nor storm
Of circumstance controls. He holds his form
Serene, as beacon light in raging gale—
Fed by a power unseen—shines on and on.

JOURNALISM IN THE METHODIST EPISCOPAL CHURCH.

BY THEODORE L. FLOOD.

WHEN Beverley Waugh was a bishop in the Methodist Episcopal church the religious tract was the printed medium for conveying religious instruction to Methodist homes and to people whom church members desired to bring into the fold. The Tract Society gave direction to the printing and distributing of these religious documents. To-day the religious paper has supplanted the tract and in every way fills a much larger place.

The weekly paper of this church is a unique institution. The intelligent Methodist subscribes for it from a sense of duty or because it is a religious privilege. It is regarded as an essential by the local leader in his church. Twenty-five years ago the preacher was the agent. He advertised the periodical in his pulpit, on the circuit, and in the station; he received money for it and did all the business of a news agent for his congregation and the publisher. It was one of his official duties, and by magnifying the office of news agent the clergy helped to establish Methodist periodical literature. Hence it is that every Methodist preacher and layman is a partner in the company which owns the Methodist press in the United States.

This fact weighed heavily when the final ownership of these religious papers was determined. For instance, Thomas A. Morris, as a member of the Ohio Conference, assisted by some of his brethren began the publication of the *Western Christian Advocate* in Cincinnati about 1831, and in less

than four years he had secured 5,500 subscribers. It was offered to the General Conference and was accepted by that body as the property of the church. Dr. Morris was elected editor and afterwards he was made a bishop. It is the old story that

one victory leads to another,—he made the paper and the church made him bishop.

The church has owned that periodical ever since and it is worth to-day about \$200,000. The *Northwestern Christian Advocate* at Chicago and the *Central Christian Advocate* at St. Louis are each worth about as much more; the *Pittsburg Christian Advocate* and the *Northern Christian Advocate* at Syracuse, N. Y., are worth about

\$100,000 each; *The Christian Advocate* (New York) may be rated at about \$400,000, and the *Epworth Herald* at Chicago, \$100,000. If appraisers were

appointed by the courts to estimate the value of these periodicals we think these figures would be counted very nearly correct. Reference is made here simply to their subscription list and good will, apart from the buildings, presses, and other equipments used for producing the papers. This estimate shows that the Methodist people have well nigh a million and a half dollars in these periodicals. Add to them the *Quarterly Review*, the *San Francisco Advocate*, *Zion's Herald*, and the *Sunday School Teachers' Journal*, together with all the other Sunday school publications, which may be estimated at a million dollars, and the total will be about two and one half million dollars invested in current literature.



JAMES M. BUCKLEY, L.L.D.
Editor "The Christian Advocate."
(New York.)



CHARLES PARKHURST, D.D.
Editor "Zion's Herald" (Boston.) (Unofficial.)

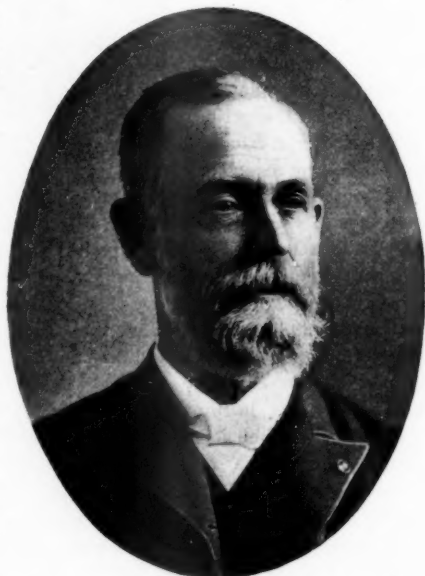
This is a potential educational force in constant operation fifty-two weeks in every year. The combined circulation of the weeklies must reach over 250,000. This is a powerful force for the spread of spiritual Christianity and this was the original purpose of these papers. How near they come to this standard now it is not our purpose to discuss. It was a prime object to furnish at a low price spiritual reading and a variety of information concerning the churches, but it was not the design to make them sources of revenue. It has come to pass, however, through the numerical growth of the church and general prosperity of the country, in which all newspapers share, especially if they carry advertisements, that these periodicals yield a rich annual profit to the church. This is the business side of the Methodist press.

Our readers will find the portraits of the editors connected with this article. These are the men who edit the Methodist papers, and who voice the sentiments of the church and ministry on all questions that concern Methodist people. The General Conference, a body which meets once in four years, elects the editors to the *papers al-*

ready named with one exception,—the editor of *Zion's Herald* is elected by the Wesleyan Association, which is made up of representatives from the different Annual Conferences located in New England. It is not expedient that we write up each editor, since we prefer to characterize the Methodist press as a whole.

Is the circulation of these periodicals in proportion to the membership of the denomination? There are now nearly two million Methodists in this country. Therefore the legitimate inquiry is, Do these papers go to enough Methodist people? Is their influence as far reaching as it ought to be, and is the church as aggressive through its press in educating as it might be? These questions are suggestive when we consider that there are about three adherents to each congregation for every member and this makes a vast multitude whose existing relations to Methodism excite the ambition of the zealous for the more extensive circulation of the weekly paper.

Is not a new style of religious paper needed in these days of new inventions and progressive thought? We have made such



ARTHUR EDWARDS, D.D.
Editor "Northwestern Christian Advocate." (Chicago.)



JESSE BOWMAN YOUNG, D. D.
Editor "Central Christian Advocate." (St. Louis.)

progress in the art of printing that ample illustration could be furnished without increase of price. Have not the daily and weekly secular papers pulled past the church paper by ingenuity and enterprise? Reproduction by line drawing and the photo-engraving process is now within easy reach, and if used by a religious periodical might aid it in gaining power and influence over both young and old by appealing to the esthetic taste. Again, Has not the church paper lost much of its spiritual tone, being smothered by the general current of worldly news, which gives a character for dealing extensively with secular human affairs, treating of literature and man's organizations, aiming to fill the position of a teacher of all knowledge rather than being confined to the task of a teacher of personal salvation?

The masses crave rich spiritual pabulum such as might appear in the weekly church paper. Talented and highly educated men and women there are in large numbers who need only the word to start their pens to writing articles that would breathe a new impulse every week into thousands of human souls. Their talent is now wrapped in a napkin. It

needs only the unfolding of the napkin and the work set before their gifts that it may be done. A holy fire may burn as appropriately on the altar of a printed page every week as in the heart of a preacher's sermon. The one is printed, the other spoken, and often both are written. What a sowing of the seed it would be in many churches where the preaching is without intellectual discrimination or profound amplification. We are persuaded that the rank and file of the ministry is influenced in the character of its piety and the nature of its sermons by the weekly visits of the church paper more powerfully than by the instruction of all the other officers of the church combined. The press of the country has been developed during and since the Civil War to a degree never before witnessed among any people and the chief, continuous, powerful preachers of the Gospel to-day may be the editors of our religious weeklies.

There is an element in the church that has advocated a weekly paper at a dollar a year. This would be a popular price and would bring it within the reach of the masses. The increased circulation it would



DAVID H. MOORE, D. D.
Editor "Western Christian Advocate." (Cincinnati.)

be sure to win would make it a safe financial venture. New York would be a good center from which to issue one, with Dr. Buckley as editor. With an enterprising business management it ought to reach in a little while a circulation of one hundred fifty to two hundred thousand copies per week. The same ought to be true of such a paper published in Chicago with Dr. Arthur Edwards as editor. By keeping these two men in editorial positions for well nigh twenty years the Methodist church has shown a high order of wisdom. Get a good editor and then keep him. Two such papers as experiments would soon test the question, though it could hardly be called an experiment with the present constituency already assured.



CHARLES W. SMITH, D. D.
Editor "Pittsburg Christian Advocate."

We suggested the one dollar paper to Dr. Buckley more than seven years ago, but he was handicapped for an advocate of the movement; a member of the General Conference could not lay aside all modesty to insist on a radical change in both the form and price of the paper and then stand for an election as editor. It would be asking too much, and since no man championed the plan openly it was dropped. This is one of the complications which becomes an obstacle to progress in the growth of the Methodist press. The General Conference is too unwieldy a machine for the supervision of business enterprises such as newspapers. The editors and business managers might



BENJAMIN F. CRAY, D. D.
Editor "California Christian Advocate." (San Francisco.)

with great propriety be elected by a corporate body of a dozen men on some such plan as operates *Zion's Herald*. A paper like *The Christian Advocate* at New York ought to have its own business manager who would have nothing else to do but attend to the business interests of that great periodical, just as A. S. Weed gives himself wholly to the business affairs of *Zion's Herald* at Boston. The truth is, the Methodist book agents, east and west, four in number, have enough work piled upon them for at least ten men, every one of whom ought to receive as large a salary as an agent does, and have his own special work in the business management of a great periodical. Any other business house would conduct such important business enterprises after



J. E. C. SAWYER, D. D.
Editor "Northern Christian Advocate." (Syracuse, N. Y.)

this fashion, and the result would be a very much larger business to conduct.



JESSE L. HURLBUT, D.D.
Editor Sunday School Periodicals. (New York.)

The official papers are being published on the same plan as to price that characterized them thirty years ago. No radical change has been attempted except to invest more money in articles and to increase their proportions. The enlargement is open to the comment that for the practical purposes of religious literature a high order of efficiency is sacrificed. The extreme in all periodical literature is now being

reached in a voluminous variety. The reaction is sure to come when we shall have less matter and just as much information.

The attitude of these papers to the institutions of Methodism is peculiar, if not anomalous. Every editor elected by the General Conference

proceeds with his work on the principle that he must first make his paper the evangel of everything



E. W. S. HAMMOND, D.D.
Editor "Southwestern Christian Advocate."
(New Orleans.)

that bears the name of his church. There seems to be little, if any, toleration in editorial or contributed article of any pointed criticism on the established order of things in the church. This is peculiarly noticeable in the administration of the bishops. There are sixteen bishops who make the appointments of several thousand ministers as pastors to several thousand churches every year. Now, a bishop is human. He fills a high office, but it is only an office. He may make a mistake. Such a thing has been done by appointing the wrong man to a given pulpit. It has been done in an arbitrary way over the heads of the official men representing the church. As a result the church is rent, damaged for a decade. A bishop has been known to overstep his authority in an Annual Conference. We have seen a bishop assume a rôle in a General Conference that was subversive of all parliamentary law and regular order in the body, but he was not criticised except *sotto voce* and in small coteries. One bishop does a thing one way, another bishop at a later date does the same thing in the same place another way, giving to ministers and the church a variety of episcopal administration. The press has no word of criticism. If a bishop veers from the Methodist standards of doctrine in his public



JOSEPH F. BERRY, D.D.
Editor "Epworth Herald." (Chicago.)



WILLIAM V. KELLEY, D.D.
Editor "Methodist Review." (New York.)



HENRY LIEBHART, D.D.
Editor "House and Hearth," (Cincinnati.)
the Methodist people.

The above and other points unmentioned show how the press owned by the church becomes blind to all defects in the episcopacy. A bishop is always kept at the focus of fame. It is enough to spoil an archangel, to say nothing of men who are made a little lower than the angels. It

teaching his soul may rest in peace,—the Methodist press will treat him with great charity, his errors will not be paraded before Methodism. It makes the church weak in the recognition it receives in these worldly periodicals just where the church should be constantly represented, if even at times it thrusts the episcopacy into a storm of discussion. Bishop Simpson was widely known outside of his communion because he stood for the cause of the Union in the midst of a fierce conflict and was discussed in the daily press. It may be said that it would be unwise to discuss such matters in the public prints. But if so, why is it so? We cannot appreciate any argument that would justify such a course. Fair criticism would certainly produce caution in a bishop and prove a safety valve for the expression of wholesome sentiment on



ALBERT J. NAST, D.D.
Editor "Christian Apologist."
(Cincinnati.)

should be remembered that this excess of financial and courtesy, this dead calm in the church press, minifies the bishops outside of their own denomination. The secular part of laymen bearing this excess of financial and other burdens who feel that their church has been injured by an arbitrary appointment of pastors. It would



J. H. FOTTS, D.D.
Editor "Michigan Christian Advocate."
(Detroit.) (Unofficial.)

save such churches from being dwarfed by sacrificing intelligent and useful laymen who do not believe in the infallibility of the episcopacy. Any bishop who has been properly trained in patience, until he is religiously malleable, would welcome wholesome discussion of his administration rather



A. WALLACE, D.D.
Editor "Ocean Grove Record."
(Asbury Park, N. J.) (Unofficial.)

lar press in gathering news gets its cue from the church press. So it has come to pass that the Methodist branch of the episcopacy is treated as if it were composed of so many retired ministers. Very little but compliment concerning them appearing in the church press, there is nothing



T. SNOWDEN THOMAS,
Editor "Peninsula Methodist."
(Wilmington, Del.) (Unofficial.)

in the shape of news that the Bohemian editor can lay his hands on that will interest the outside world not attached to the full attitude of indifference or paralysis, which is the positive tendency of the present régime. Discussion al-



A. N. FISHER, D.D.
Editor "Pacific Christian Advocate."
(Portland, Ore.)



REV. GEORGE HUGHES,
Editor "The Christian Standard."
(Philadelphia.) (Unofficial.)



A. HAAGENSEN.
Editor "Den Christelige Talsmand."
(Chicago.) (Unofficial.)

sume that I should be the same kind that now appears,—do the same things because it is the fashion in this school of editors. Gilbert Haven broke the spell both as an editor and a bishop for he hit hard as a writer and was himself often hit. A Methodist editor works under traditions which have come

ways leads to new methods or it evolves new ideas which are likely to result in improvement. If I were editor of a Methodist paper I pre-

are sure to be applied to them when the impartial historian writes the stories of their lives. The unofficial Methodist press has been



J. W. SHANK, D. D.
Editor "Omaha Christian Advocate."
(Neb.) (Unofficial.)

down from the an Annual time his paper Conference in was estab- regular stand- ing and must does not ven- answer for er- ture to break rors in his the rule. Kind- teaching of ly but firmly to doctrine or for subject a inveighing in strong bishop any degree



REV. S. MCGERALD.
Editor "Buffalo Christian Advocate."
(N. Y.) (Unofficial.)

to arguments, pro and con, in the open, will help the bishop to see his own course more clearly because he will elicit the ripest views of the ablest men for and against his cause. It would tend to broaden the office and create a demand for the greatest men in the church to fill it.

If in this ambling treatment of the episcopacy the office is contracted, first to the diocesan plan, second to a limited tenure of office, the main reasons for it may be traced to the fact that the bishops were placed on pedestals above the questionings of their peers in a powerful church press. Therefore we incline to the opinion that the spell should be broken in Methodist journalism by subjecting bishops to the same rules that are applied to other ministers, and that



J. FRED HEISSÉ, D. D.
Editor "Baltimore Methodist."
(Unofficial.)

Seney, Oliver Hoyt and Dr. D. H. Wheeler. They were all giants, some with the pen, others with their generous use of money.

That paper made lay delegation in the General Conference a fact. When this goal was reached, it quit the field.



T. E. STEPHENS.
Editor "Kansas Christian Advocate."
(Topeka.) (Unofficial.)

built on the same kind of a foundation and presents a similar superstructure. It is more independent in its business management because each unofficial paper has its own business manager. But the paper is amenable to church law in the person of its editor, who is a member of



REV. R. D. ALDEN.
Editor "Inland Christian Advocate."
(Des Moines.) (Unofficial.)

against the established organization.

The Methodist, which was published in New York, is now deceased. It was nursed into life by Doctors John McClintock, George R. Crooks and Abel Stevens, fostered by Daniel Drew and George I.



R. H. YOUNG.
Editor "The Methodist Herald."
(Minneapolis.) (Unofficial.)

"THE HORIZON LINE."



W. SWINDELLS, D. D.
Editor "Philadelphia Methodist."
(Unofficial.)

The Methodist press has the power to broaden Methodism at the top, after the fashion of Gilbert Haven's idea as seen in his treatment of his brother in



S. C. SWALLOW.
Editor "Pennsylvania Methodist."
(Harrisburg.) (Unofficial.)

black, and Matthew Simpson's views of woman's suffrage and woman's rightful place as a delegate in the General Conference.

If Bishop Simpson had not died, women would have been admitted as delegates into the General Confer-



R. J. COOKE, D. D.
Editor "Methodist Advocate-Journal."
(Chattanooga, Tenn.) (Unofficial.)



C. E. REEVES.
Editor "Columbia Christian Advocate."
(Spokane.) (Unofficial.)

every name at Chautauqua, an institution which exists to-day in all lands.

ing popular and liberal education into the homes of the masses, and bringing in a new era by establishing closer fraternal relations with Christians of

"THE HORIZON LINE."

BY RANDALL NEEFUS SAUNDERS.

(SUGGESTED BY A SONNET BY THOMAS WENTWORTH HIGGINSON.)

THE far horizon we may never reach,
How e'er we press toward the sunset sky:
Athirst, we long to pass the golden breach,
Where amber stars, like drops of nectar, lie.
Yet, some one stands on that far glowing line
(As we are standing where some soul aspired,
And called our height *his distant horizon*)
To find those drops of Tantalos as fine,—
To find himself with grander purpose fired
For those he knows are surely coming on.
The new attains the things for which we yearn
To yearn for things beyond our present goal,
And unborn ages yet will quaff and learn
The full expansion of th' immortal soul.

DR. OLIVER WENDELL HOLMES' HEALTH CODE

BY FELIX L. OSWALD, M. D.

A BIOGRAPHER of the Empress Katharine relates that her eccentric husband once invited the Academy of St. Petersburg to explain how the utility of modern science could be reconciled with the fact that so many enormous rascals were found in the ranks of the legal profession, and that physicians, with all their pills and panaceas, were generally shortlived.

In reply, the facetious committee of investigation suggested that "the zeal for the service of His Czarish Majesty's subjects had left many lawyers no leisure to secure the salvation of their own souls, while, for similar reasons, doctors had not always time to attend to the welfare of their bodies," but ventured to mention one notable exception in the case of an eminent physician, a member of their own faculty, who had attained an age of three score and ten, his sanitary omniscience having saved his own person from the contagion of the countless diseases which he had succeeded in curing.

According to that test of medical infallibility, Dr. Oliver Wendell Holmes' competence as an oracle of hygiene should rival that of Hippocrates himself. The venerable father of the healing art is said to have reached the age of one hundred and four, but enjoyed the advantage of a birthland blest with a climate of perpetual spring, where stifling lecture halls and stove-heated sickrooms were as unknown as cigarette-shops and distilleries. The physical superiority of his race was partly perhaps also due to the facilities of travel that enabled the semi-oriental islanders of Asiatic Greece to intermarry with the fair-haired natives of the Macedonian coastlands, and only in that latter respect the son of the New England clergyman could boast an objective basis of favorable sanitary auspices.

His maternal ancestors had been dwellers at the shore of the Zuyder Zee, and one of his favorite biological tenets was the theory that the intermixture of vigorous, but

variously endowed nations is a chief factor in the progress of the human race. He admits that now and then an offspring of such marriages may inherit the less desirable qualities of his ancestors, but contends that there is more than an even chance of a less unfortunate combination and that as a consequence the inhabitants of international frontiers are generally both mentally and physically superior to the homogenous population of inland provinces.

He also collected data of numerous instances illustrating the evil effects of consanguineous marriages and probably lived to see a striking confirmation of his theory in the case of the Rothschilds, who, according to the recent statement of an intelligent observer, "have not a single youngster who, with the possible exception of young Lionel Walter of the English branch, is able to take the place of his father in the firm. Most of their children are stunted, in more than one sense of the word, as a result of too close intermarriage,—a practice the object of which has been to keep the money in the family and prevent the business secrets of the five-headed bank from leaking out."

Holmes often laments the wretched climate of his native land, but inclines to the opinion that its sins in spoiling the opportunities for outdoor recreation are redeemed by its tendency to counteract the evils of indoor life. "In southern Europe," he says, "I have seen more than one bathroom that limits its patrons to water only a few degrees below the seething point,—an arrangement that reminds me of the climatic afflictions of countries where an open window admits nothing but superheated air. In bleak New England you can mix your domestic atmosphere according to your own notions of health and comfort. Coal is cheap, and marrow freezing drafts, to temper an excess of artificial caloric, can be enjoyed at almost any time of the year."

Many of his favorite hygienic prescriptions were, indeed, intended to remedy the evils of overheating, both by fuel and caloric food, and he mentions a simple measure of ventilation, proposed by Dr. John Clark, that saved the lives of thousands of children confined in sweltering hospitals. "How long," he adds, "would it have taken calomel and rhubarb to save so many lives? These may be useful in prudent hands, but how insignificant compared to the plan of removing the causes of disease by timely attention to hygienic conditions!"

His faith in the remedial virtues of refrigeration stopped short of a partiality for shower-baths of ice-water, but he had an abiding confidence in the bracing effect of winter sports, or outdoor exercise in the cool of the morning, "with or without the prescription of a barefoot race in a dew-drenched meadow," to which the patients of Pastor Kneipp attribute their miraculous recoveries. That practical refutation of the popular catarrh-superstition he considers merely a modified form of the "antiphlogistic treatment, practiced thousands of years ago by the sagacious Erasistratus," and suggests that half an hour's work with a snow shovel would answer much the same purpose.

He did not, however, deny the occasional value of heat as a remedial agency, and recommends the sunbaths of the ancient Romans, as well as the expedient of the Baltic shore dwellers, who carry sickly children to the beach and bury them up to the neck in sun-warmed sand. "The cure of diseases by changes of temperature," he proposes as the title of a much-needed treatise, and considers the germ theory of contagious disorders one of the most important revelations of the present age, "especially," he remarks, "in connection with the fact that microbes can be killed by degrees of heat and cold, which man, their living boarding-house, can easily weather."

Half-developed disease-germs, he holds, our system will contrive to expel with a little assistance in the form of a more fluid diet, "whence the efficiency of grape cures, whey cures, and mineral waters"—implying a conjecture that a dollar's worth of home-

made lemonade would obviate the necessity of many an expensive trip to a fashionable health resort.

Among the illustrations of the fact that the composition of the blood-purifying fluid (if drunk in sufficient quantities and free from noxious admixtures) is a matter of secondary importance, he quoted the crotchet of Bishop Berkeley, "that great and good man, whose mind had, however, got saddled with two very odd opinions: viz., that the whole material universe was nothing and that *tar-water* was everything." A long series of experiments, conducted under his personal supervision, had convinced the illustrious prelate that "a liquid prepared by stirring a gallon of water with a quart of tar and pouring off the clear water at the end of the second day," would almost infallibly cure smallpox, scurvy, pleurisy, erysipelas, cæcexia, catarrh, asthma, indigestion, hysterics, dropsy, and hypochondria.

The rapid spread of that delusion Holmes ascribes to the vulgar notion that sick people must be made to swallow nauseous specifics, and that Berkeley's nostrum is just unpalatable enough to humor the current prejudice without doing serious mischief,—even without considering the beneficial effects of its large percentage of simple water.

Dr. Zimmermann's Memoirs attribute the long life of Frederick the Great to his timely renunciation of the error which for years had made him stint himself in sleep to lengthen his working hours. Holmes abjured that suicidal practice before the end of his college years, and held that a liberal allowance of rest adds to the enjoyment of life as well as to its duration, but he attached no importance to the observance of fixed bedroom hours. When the fatigues of the preceding day demanded a few hours of extra sleep, the administrators of the breakfast table were instructed not to wait for the appearance of the autocrat, or if, on the other hand, the haunting sense of an unfinished task had driven him out of bed before sunrise, he had no hesitation about making up the deficiency by a siesta. The American Horace, as one of his admirers calls him, had a talent for self-banter, and mentions as

a "humiliating comment on the state of our pathological knowledge the curious fact that Nature can do her remedial work most effectively when the recipe-fraught mind is undergoing the eclipse of deepest slumber."

"Of two such lessons, why forget
The better and the cheaper one,"

he parodies Byron in lamenting the fact that monkish processions are still in vogue, while monastic fasts have gone out of fashion, at least in the St. Jerome and Tanner form of total abstinence from food during a sanitary quarantine of forty hours, if not days. "Next to the delusion that sick people must swallow poisons," he says, "the silliest notion of our hospital nurses is the idea that they must swallow something or other, whether their appetite demands it or not. The suspension of the desire for food is a plain hint that the digestive organs are closed for repairs and cannot just now attend to their routine work without serious risk of overtaxing the vital resources of the organism. But while additional *ingesta* of solid food may do much mischief, pure cold water is generally welcome, or even urgently desired, as indicated by the burning thirst attending the crisis of many febrile disorders."

With that panoply of home-remedies, Dr. Holmes felt almost prepared to renounce the specifics of the drug market. For a regular member of the Massachusetts Medical Society, and Farman professor of anatomy and physiology, his remarks on that point are surprisingly outspoken. "After all the reforms of the last fifty years," he says, "the community is still sadly overdosed. . . . The best proof of it is, that no families take so little medicine as those of doctors, *except those of apothecaries*, and that old practitioners are more sparing of active medicines than younger ones. . . . Nay, I will venture to say this, that if every specific were to fail utterly, if the cinchona trees all died out, and the arsenic mines were exhausted, and the sulphur mines burned up, if every drug from the mineral, vegetable, and animal kingdom were to disappear from the market, a body of enlightened men, organized as a distinct profession, would be respected just as much as now, though their function should

be limited to the prevention of disease by the removal of its causes, and its cure by so ordering the conditions of the patient as to favor the efforts of the system to right itself." ("Currents and Counter Currents," pp. 16 and 17.)

"A portion of the blame rests with the public itself, which insists on being poisoned. Somebody buys all the quack medicines that build palaces for the mushroom—or say, rather, the toadstool, millionaires. Who is it? These people have a constituency of millions. The popular belief is all but universal that sick persons should be fed on noxious substances. One of our members was called not long since to a man with a terribly sore mouth. On inquiry, he found that the man had picked up a box of unknown pills, on Howard Street, and had proceeded to take them, on general principles, pills being good for people. They happened to contain mercury, and thus explained the trouble for which he consulted our colleague." (*Ibid*, p. 19.)

Dr. Holmes' essay on "Homeopathy and Kindred Delusions" provoked a storm of controversy and was supplemented by a diatribe which for wit and humor, but also for occasional outbursts of reckless bitterness, has hardly a parallel in the catalogue of medical literature, and contrasts strangely with the genial table-talk of the Beacon Street philosopher. He compares the disciples of Hahnemann to skeptics who have left the fold of the church only to stray into the trap of a spook-factory: "Some who have lost their hereditary belief find a resource in the revelations of mysticism. By a parallel movement, some of those who have become medical infidels pass over to the mystic band of believers in the fancied miracles of homeopathy. . . . When the originator of this singular doctrine," he says, "ascribes the chronic malady of a bereaved mother, and even the melancholy of a lovesick maiden to nothing more than a modified form of the unseemly and almost unmentionable *itch*, does it not seem as if the very soil upon which we stand were dissolving into chaos over the earthquake heavings of discovery?"

But he also accuses Hahnemann of will-

fully misquoting his alleged precursors, of suppressing notorious facts and misinterpreting others, and winds up the impeachment of his followers with the prediction that "Not many years can pass away before the same curiosity now excited by Perkins' 'Tractors,' will be awakened at the sight of the Infinitesimal Globules. If the pretended science of homeopathy should claim a longer existence, it can only be by falling into the hands of sordid wretches who wring their bread from the cold grasp of disease and death in the hovels of ignorant poverty." ("Addresses and Essays," p. 176.)

Even Holmes' own disbelief in the virtues of those "infinitesimal globules" could hardly justify such language, if considered in connection with his avowed opposition to the homicidal doses of the old-school practitioners, and the only charitable explanation of his wrath can be found in the misgiving that the doctrine of Hahnemann would tend to keep alive the popular belief in the necessity of medication and thus prove a formidable barrier to the progress of radical hygienic reform. His aversion to heroic remedies gradually took the form of a doubt in the remedial efficacy, or at least necessity, of any drugs, "opium and the vapors which produce the miracle of anesthesia, perhaps excepted. . . . With these exceptions," he continues, "I believe that if the whole materia medica, as now used, could be sunk to the bottom of the sea, it would be all the better for mankind,—and all the worse for the fishes." ("Currents and Counter Currents," p. 39.)

His views on the temperance problem underwent a similar change. In the very chapter of the treatise just quoted, he calls wine "a food," and during the ten years following his return from Europe often quizzed his New England friends on the radicalism of their abstinence principles, but further reflections on the curse of the drink evil made him thoughtful, and he began to doubt the possibility of effecting a permanent cure of a well developed case of dipsomania. In his popular science chat with the readers of the New England monthlies he repeatedly quotes a passage from the Medi-

cal Reform manual of Dr. Isaac Jennings, who compares the predicament of a toper to that of a boatman, struggling with the current of the rapids above Niagara Falls. For a while, a resolute oarsman can hold his own against the stream, but he may forget his danger or yield to the desire for repose, while the current keeps steadily at work, and, as sure as he lives, will eventually carry him over the brink of the abyss.

From the recognition of that fact it was only a step to the *principiis obsta* maxim of teetotalism, and those who knew the keensighted old littérateur best, admit that only his doubts in the utility of coercive legislation prevented him from becoming an open champion of the Prohibition party.

Gluttony he considers less incurable, and advises gormands to try the effect of exciting work or sport as a trick for deafening the ear to the sound of the dinner horn and cheating the esurient stomach out of the coveted surfeit. "Have you ever noticed," he says, "how frequent the habit of overeating is found among idlers and how rarely among hard-working or very busy people? With wrong-eating it is often the reverse, and workingmen frequently suffer less from insufficient than from ill-selected food. Often enough, however, 'their poverty and not their will consents,' and for well-to-do sinners there is no such excuse. The moral cowardice that makes us swallow vicious liquors and ruinous made-dishes to avoid a breach of etiquette is really more unpardonable than the folly that tempts a silly girl to sacrifice her health on the altar of fashion."

His sensitive mind shrunk from the noises of city-life:

"The very air vibrating like a sea
Over a pent volcano. Woe is me!
All the day long!"

But the bugbear of his moral nature was pessimism, and he considered cheerfulness a duty which the human soul owes to its physical yokefellow. "You may despise the body," he says, "as a slave of the meta-physical mind, but remember that the humblest servant may get weary of working for a moping master. . . . Bad luck, of

course, cannot always be parried, but it can be ignored. Refuse to be discouraged. Accept disappointments as mere postponements of your plans. Say, 'Too soon.' Never say, 'Too late.' In the interest of health and your hope of success, take a bright view of things, like an obstructed plant that turns toward a faint sunbeam till it at last emerges into the prosperity of free daylight."

Holmes held that, under normal condi-

tions, the extinction of consciousness ought to be as painless as its eclipse in welcome slumber.

The last moments of the genial octogenarian almost justified that belief, and since the death of the poet-philosopher Goethe, no man of modern times has longer or more completely realized the supreme ideal of sanitary science: The preservation of a healthy mind in the fit tabernacle of a healthy body.

HOW TO TELL COLORS.

BY MARCUS BENJAMIN, PH.D.

IN recent years the development of science has tended largely to the improvement of methods of measurement. To-day we know the mean distance between the earth and the sun to be 92,797,000 miles with a probable error of only 59,700 miles. Instruments of precision have been greatly improved. Balances that show one one-hundredth of a milligram are no longer rarities. Better telescopes, that is those that make the distance appear shorter, and better microscopes, that is those that make the object appear greater, are now in common use as compared with similar instruments made only a few years ago. Methods of chemical analysis have been so improved that quantitative determinations that formerly required a day to make can now be performed in fifteen minutes. Especially have more exact determinations and more rapid methods followed the establishment of physical laboratories in the universities of this country. Among the more recent advances in this direction is what perhaps may be called the quantitative estimation of color. That is the decomposition or analysis of a shade or hue into its component ingredients as derived from the spectrum.

This is not exactly a new thing for it has been known in physical laboratories for many years. Indeed most of the greater physicists of the world have contributed something toward the advancement of our knowledge of color. Newton, Chevreul, Clerk Maxwell, Helmholtz, and Rood are

names frequently found in a study of the literature of the subject.

Inasmuch as the present writer has been instrumental in bringing about the ways and means for the development of what seems to be a scientific working scheme for determining the ingredients of a color compound, he may be permitted to describe what has been accomplished within the past two years. The matter originally presented itself in the form of a question as to whether a table of colors could be compiled that would give the exact composition of the many varieties of shades and hues, known by numerous names, in terms of the five or six colors of the spectrum. The value of such a table is almost obvious. The nomenclature of colors has long been very confusing. It is easy to form something of an idea of a color when its name is descriptive; thus amber, Havana brown, Mazarine blue, and sea green are readily comprehended, but admiral, Charles X., luciole, Pullman car, and similar arbitrary names are utterly without significance except to the initiated.

Many years ago Chevreul, when chemist to the Gobelins factory near Paris, devised a chromatic circle which he made by dividing a disc into seventy-two equal sectors. Three equidistant sectors were colored red, yellow, and blue, and at equal distances from each of these three colors he placed those which resulted from the mixing of two of them; thus he placed orange between red and yellow, green between yellow and blue, and violet

between blue and red. This process he continued until he obtained seventy-two tints within his circle. More recently educators have attempted arbitrary schemes of nomenclature of a somewhat similar nature. Thus in one before me the author begins at the red end of the spectrum and designates that color by R., then follows with V. R. for violet red; R. V. for red violet; V. for violet; B. V. for blue violet; V. B. for violet blue; B. for blue, and so on. By mixing these colors with white a tint is formed and by mixing them with black a shade is formed so that this nomenclature is further burdened with the letters T. and S., standing for tint and shade respectively. Hence R. V. S. 1 signifies a shade of red violet and R. V. S. 2 a darker shade of red violet, while R. V. T. 1 indicates a tint of red violet and R. V. T. 2 a darker tint of red violet. It is true that this sort of nomenclature is scientific, easily taught and easily understood, but it is hardly a practical one for the reason that manufacturers persist in selecting arbitrary names for the new colors that they place on the market.

It was therefore promptly decided that no such nomenclature as the foregoing could be adopted and hence the direct comparison of colors with standards taken direct from the spectrum itself was agreed upon as the best means of settling that part of the subject. Such values had already been determined by several physicists, notably in recent years by Professor Ogden N. Rood of Columbia College, whose work bearing the title of "Modern Chromatics" has led to his being regarded as one of the first authorities in the world on this subject. He had not only determined with great exactness the wave lengths of the spectrum colors but he had also found corresponding pigments easily purchasable in the open market that might be used for comparison. In other words, if we wanted to prove that the color cinnabar, derived from the mineral of that name, consisted of exactly 78 parts of red and 22 parts of orange, we must have some convenient colors to compare it with for the reason that a spectroscopic is not always accessible and moreover it is an instrument

that requires a certain amount of skill for manipulation.

In order to make this still clearer it will be necessary to return to certain investigations made in this direction by J. Clerk Maxwell. This eminent scientist used for his analyses of color a series of color discs which he rotated on a wheel. These color discs consisted of circular pieces of pasteboard coated with colored paper or painted with colored pastes. By overlapping these discs within a graduated circle and rapidly rotating them on a wheel so as to produce an impression of a single mass of color, they could be made to correspond to any desired color, and especially so when a small piece of material of the color to be matched was placed in front of the discs, that is near the center of the rotating instrument, which though usually a wheel, was sometimes a top.

In the preparation of the table previously referred to, it was decided to determine the various colors in terms of five standard colors obtained from the spectrum, together with black and white. The five color discs selected were prepared by mixing the best (1) English vermilion; (2) mineral orange; (3) light chrome yellow; (4) emerald green; and (5) artificial ultramarine blue—all pigments readily purchasable in any paint store—with a thick solution of gum arabic in water until it had a consistency equal to that of oil paint and applying it to the cardboard. Light cardboard or heavy drawing paper can be used. The white was cut from the purest white cardboard obtainable and the black one was made by painting a white disc with a mixture of the best lampblack in an alcoholic solution of shellac. The discs when finished should have an even, firm, and dull surface. The best size of which to make the discs is from three to five inches in diameter.

According to determinations made in the physical laboratory of Columbia College, the wave lengths of the five standard colors chosen expressed in microns were as follows: red, 0.644; orange, 0.614; yellow, 0.585; green, 0.521; and blue, 0.425. To some it may seem strange to note that violet was omitted but as this color can readily be pro-

duced by combining blue and red, it was found that matters were simplified by its omission; also it is not an easy color to procure in pigment form.

Our study of this subject had passed the experimental stage at this time for we had obtained certain definite standards with which it was possible to work. The scientist with his spectroscope can locate the chosen color standards in the spectrum by means of the measurements given, while the teacher or student can by the purchase of the pigments previously mentioned make discs, that, remember, correspond exactly to the lines in the spectrum. The particular merit of this scheme is the exact correspondence between the scientific and practical standards, which makes it an easy matter at any time to verify the practical standards should they fade or become otherwise unfit for use. The lines from the sun are eternal and therefore permanent. A rotating apparatus, such as that devised by Maxwell, completes the requisites and with these simple appliances the analysis of color becomes a simple matter.

Passing now to the practical application of our result. Let us assume that we desire to order in London a piece of cloth for a book cover to match a sample on hand, called French blue, which is of a light greenish-blue shade. In order to ascertain its exact composition we first cut a sample of the cloth. Then taking the green and blue discs, together with the white one, for the shade is a light one, we arrange them so that when rotated they will present the appearance of the French blue. The discs are next placed on the rotating wheel in front of the graduated circle, which is divided into exactly one hundred parts, and the sample of the color to be matched, that is the French blue in the present instance, is placed in front of the discs. The wheel is then rotated and if the match is not exact we move the discs until when they are in rapid motion, it is impossible to distinguish them from the sample.

In the case of French blue this condition was reached when the proportions on the graduated scale showed the composition to be exactly 40 parts of white, 19 of green, and 41 of blue. Accordingly our order to the

factory abroad would read, Send us a cloth which in color shall correspond exactly to 40 parts of white, 19 of green, and 41 of blue.

During the last year more than five hundred colors with as many different names were analyzed in the Physical Laboratory of Columbia College under the direction of Dr. William Hallock and their exact composition set down. For this purpose samples of colored fabrics, specimens of silks, sample books of printer's ink, colored paper, in fact specimens of all kinds, aggregating thousands in number, were collected and the analysis of each made. In the case of several specimens of the same name but varying slightly in color careful judgment was used in making up the result.

Let us now turn to the practical utility of this scheme. Reference has already been made to the matching of samples of cloth for book binding. How many of us have been chagrined on taking a sample volume of a favorite set of periodicals to a binder to learn that an exact match of the leather was not to be had. If leathers were dyed according to colors of known values in terms of standard colors in lieu of by arbitrary mixture, then it would be possible to obtain colors in leathers that would be identical with previously obtained samples and one of the most irritating eyesores in libraries would be in a fair way to disappear.

Shades of wall papers could be easily duplicated. Tints of outdoor or indoor decoration could be made to conform with desired requirements. If you ask a decorator to paint your walls terra cotta that color should correspond to 27 parts orange, 69 parts black, and 4 parts white, and not to 45 parts black, 45 parts orange, and 10 parts white, although the colors are similar. A greater discrepancy still is to be found if one orders a cottage or country house painted drab, Naples yellow, or any similar color, for the reason that no two dealers make a pigment exactly the same but if one orders a building painted of a Naples yellow that shall consist of 45 parts white, 18 of orange, and 37 of yellow, then the color is specific and exact.

For science the application of this scheme

promises great results, especially in natural history. How can a botanist in a description of a plant distinguish between the different varieties of green for instance? The expression ivy-green is not uncommon, but what is it? Ivy occurs in all shades from a dark bluish green to a light grass-green. Grass-green and pea-green are well known shades. The former consists of 16 parts standard yellow and 84 parts standard green, while pea-green consists of 60 parts white, 8 parts standard yellow, and 32 parts standard green. If a color be not referable to any one of the definitely known and analyzed varieties of green then the botanist should describe the shade as a green consisting of such and such proportions of standard colors.

The application of names of colors to animals is equally confusing. What does seal-brown mean? Is it the color of natural skin or is it the color of the dyed skin? Who can distinguish between peacock-blue and peacock-green? If we say that the plumage of the peacock shows a blue corresponding to 49 parts standard blue, 46 parts standard green, and 5 parts white and that it also shows a green that corresponds to 38 parts blue, 55 parts green, and 7 parts white, the information is exact and precise, and therefore scientific.

The nomenclature of the colors of minerals is vague. When we say that a thing is of a garnet color we mean that it is of a dark purplish red color corresponding to 13 parts of orange, 4 parts of red, 8 parts of blue, and 75 parts of black. But the garnet itself may be found to exist in varying shades of green, red, light yellow, and even black or white. How can one describe the many shades of color produced by mixing copper and other elements with gold? It is almost amusing to read the varying descriptions of the color of pure chemical elements. Four different authorities selected at random describe pure metallic iron as "resembling silver in whiteness," as "slightly gray," as "bright white," and as "white." Lead is described as "bluish gray," as "bluish white," as "soft bluish," and as "dull white." And these are common elements. In the case of

barium or other difficultly isolated elements the descriptions vary still more until it is impossible to more than guess what the color is. Such a condition of affairs shows how crude our knowledge of color is. In so exact a science as chemistry it is strange to find such ignorance concerning important qualities of different forms of matter.

A list of wines giving the important characteristics of each was recently examined. One of the headings was color and the so-called white wines were found to be "light brown," "amber," "golden," "white," and "colorless," yet as a matter of fact, they were all identical. This is another of the many instances showing the desirability of having a series of color standards.

By means of these standards it will be possible for an artist to duplicate with exactness many of the colors he finds in nature. Tones of old buildings as well as the color of materials can be reproduced with absolute exactness. The color processes now used for making chromos and other colored prints can be made to represent the original with a fidelity hitherto unattainable. Other applications will suggest themselves to the reader and we pass for a brief consideration of its value in education.

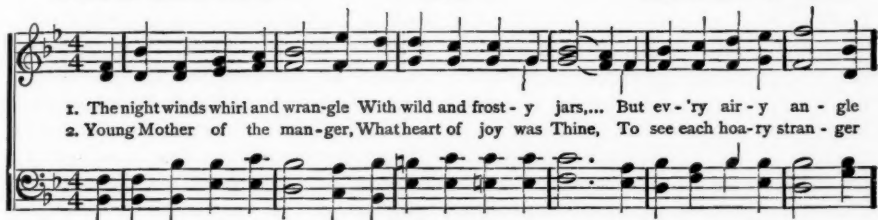
Children will be taught in the kindergarten and primary schools to recognize these standards and with them they will be set to compose various shades and tints. Shades and tints will be given them to analyze and decompose. As a result a more exact and fundamental knowledge of color will ensue. Is it too much to expect that in consequence a greater familiarity with the harmony of colors will prevail?

In the present article we have tried to show the vagueness of the nomenclature of colors or the inexactness of the names of the many shades and tints in common use. I have indicated the standards that have been recently determined and have pointed out some of the applications that will follow the use of these standards. Their universal acceptance will come in time and the furtherance of this action has been the chief object of calling attention to so interesting and important a subject.

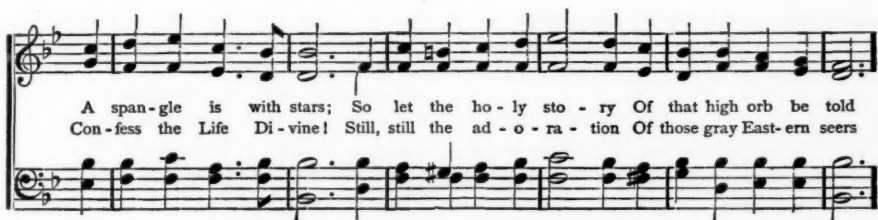
On That First Christmas Night. A Carol.

Words by Clinton Scollard.

Music by H. P. Danks.

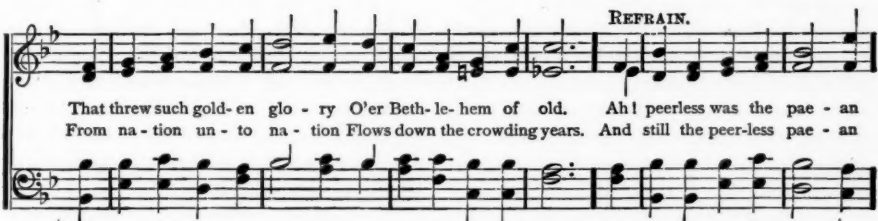


1. The night winds whirl and wran-gle With wild and frost - y jars,... But ev - 'ry air - y an - gle
2. Young Mother of the man-ger, What heart of joy was Thine, To see each ho-a-ry stran - ger

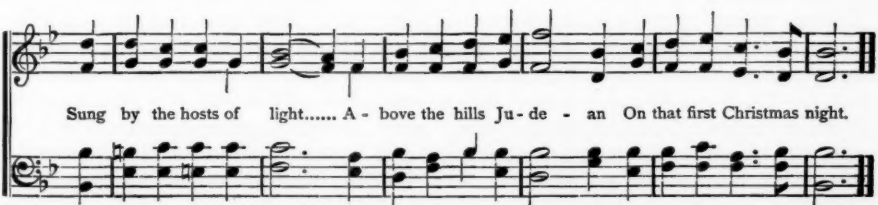


A span-gle is with stars; So let the ho - ly sto - ry Of that high orb be told
Con - fess the Life Di - vine! Still, still the ad - o - ra - tion Of those gray East - ern seers

REFRAIN.



That threw such gold - en glo - ry O'er Beth - le - hem of old. Ah! peerless was the pae - an
From na - tion un - to na - tion Flows down the crowding years. And still the peer - less pae - an



Sung by the hosts of light..... A - bove the hills Ju - de - an On that first Christmas night.

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TWENTY YEARS OF MODERN MONARCHY IN SPAIN.

BY M. CHARLES BENOIST.

TRANSLATED FOR "THE CHAUTAUQUAN" FROM THE FRENCH "REVUE DES DEUX MONDES."

POLITICS is like natural history; it has its transformation of species, and its varieties which disappear. There have been two types of monarchy: the ancient type and the modern type, the latter bearing the same relation to the former that the man of to-day bears to the man of the first ages.

In the ancient type of monarchy all powers were commingled. The right to rule was God-given and resided in the king. There was no liberty save such as he granted or was not able to control. In the modern type liberties are fixed, defined, guaranteed by law; powers are distinct and tend to equalize themselves. Whatever may be the source of the right it is no longer a personal one inherent in the ruler. Royalty is a public office or a public duty.

The ancient type has almost disappeared from the earth. It can only be found, if at all, at the extreme frontier of the western world, in Turkey, in Russia; and even there it is greatly attenuated. For a hundred years the modern type has taken its place. Like everything else that survives and wishes to live on, monarchy has been obliged to adapt itself to the changing epoch; and the more the means of bringing about this change have been agitated in these last years, the faster has it been necessary to depart from the old type.

No country in the course of this century has undergone so many changes of government as Spain. It is now proven to be without the least question a modern monarchy which the revolution of 1875 established. The country was not able to accept it at first because it was a monarchy; since then it has learned how both to accept and to maintain it because it was modern.

At the end of 1874 Spain was greatly unsettled, after its six years of insurrections

and uninterrupted struggles. Over the grievous route which nations are sometimes called to travel, it had gone, led by a dictator, demanding a king, and receiving a republic. Isabella II., the queen, had fled, being driven out by Serrano and Topete; a prince of the house of Hohenzollern had failed in his attempt to inherit the throne of the Bourbons; then Don Juan Prim, the commander-in-chief of the army, intrigued with the house of Savoy and Victor Emmanuel sent as king his son Amadeus, duke of Aosta. This step was reversing history, as not long before, Spain, far from drawing her sovereigns from Italy, supplied with her princes the Italian states. But as a tempest brought this duke of Aosta, a hurricane bore him away. Miserable Spain had had full experience in both tempests and hurricanes, and still new ones were awaiting her.

Every time that, halting a moment and thinking to regain her breath, Spain was beginning to hope that she might settle down in peace within her own borders, some general passed with his battalion who roughly jostled her out of the precarious shelter in which she was resting. At the North there was the Carlist war; at the South, federalism. Between these two opposing parties were the faithful friends of the deposed queen or of her son, Don Alfonso XII., in appearance neutral and resigned, in secret active and alert.

As a republic, which form it next assumed, Spain seemed too powerless to make any impression. The president, Marshal Serrano, without fear in combat and superb under fire, was in government weak and undecided. From one end of the country to the other anarchy existed. To civil anarchy there responded military anarchy. Not a regiment was sure of its colonel; not a colonel sure of his regiment.

The republic fell. Public order being

wanting, all that which is born of order and finds in order its nourishment, was exiled or ruined. There were no finances; there was no commerce; there were no interior or foreign communications. Spain was cut up into twenty pieces and kept separated from Europe. The Pyrenees were made insuperable save for contrabands of war. Roads were sown with caltrops over which diligences stumbled; foot paths were barred by rocks. Don Carlos [the pretender who then sought to make himself king, the third in descent, from the pretender who tried to reestablish the Salic law and thus exclude Isabella II. and secure the throne to himself as a representative of the younger branch] had his custom house officers, as the most authenticated king and his mountain runners, as had Hernani. That which they especially arrested and destroyed and murdered was Spain.

So when on December 29, 1874, General Campos, with his army, faced the Carlists at Saguntum and uttered the cry, "Long live King Alfonso XII.," and when their generals repeated the cry; when the captain-general of Madrid, notwithstanding all his promises gave back the city to those whom it was his duty to conduct to prison, as guilty of revolting against the Carlists then in power, Spain had only gratitude and love for the rebels; she welcomed them as liberators, recompensed them as victors, and peace was never so blessed as this insurrection which in the thought of the whole people closed so happily the long era of insurrections, and restored to power Alfonso XII., the son of the dethroned Isabella II.

In a few months the monarchy of the restored Bourbons will pass the twentieth year of its existence, and for it as for Spain these twenty years have been a restoration to youth, a renaissance, something like a "*vita nuova*." Behind the throne of Don Alfonso XIII., the throne of a child over whom a woman is bending, Spain has arisen, peaceful and free. Carlism has not, perhaps, given up its desire for revenge, but at least it is no longer in arms; the pope, in prescribing the respect due to the established

powers, deposed and discrowned it. Spain is united throughout its fifty provinces; cantonalism, the system of division in government, is effaced. Federalism is reduced to the state of pure theory.

The Spanish army is morally and materially reorganized. It has learned that which it did not know or relearned that which it had forgotten, the great precept taught by the French Revolution that an armed force must be essentially obedient; that it is not to deliberate in any case; that it is to make neither laws nor kings; that its honor lies in silence and its virtue in abnegation.

The financial situation does not excite admiration or envy; the budget is not liquidated; the past weighs heavily upon the present, which inconsiderately leans forward upon the future.

If the economic question is nearly the same in Spain as it is elsewhere, the labor question assumes there no longer any acrimony or especial acuteness. The countryman who in the morning before dawn goes to his work several leagues from his rude hamlet, mounted upon a donkey which closely resembles that of Sancho Panza, counts himself happy as he returns after nightfall in that he has earned fifteen sous (nearly fifteen cents) in fifteen hours, and that the farm of M. le duc, for whom he works, is very large and fine. He is contented with little, eats a crust of bread and drinks a cup of water. This is why Spain has no reason to fear a *Jacquerie*, or rising of the peasants, why agrarian socialism, the natural result of the tendency to concentrate the land in the hands of a few—does not reach maturity there.

Other socialism, the socialism of cities, exercises no longer there such ravages as among other races, the Latin or the Germanic. Even anarchy, although it seemed to have chosen Barcelona for its place of refuge, dares no longer to assault that citadel of Monjuich which does not restore its prisoners. In short, property and labor are guarded. Trains are no longer stopped upon the less frequented lines. One can travel from Madrid to Seville, from Burgos

to Cadiz, in short all over Spain without paying more than the legal charges. There is virtually no more robbery near the bridge of Toledo, and no one any longer makes war at home against the king of Spain.

There have been twenty years of perfect peace, such peace as the country has rarely known, peace interior and exterior, peace civil and religious, peace of soul and of conscience. And during this time Spain has not only become quiet and unified, it has also become modernized; not only has it been resuscitated, it has been rejuvenated. Charles IV., Ferdinand VII., Maria Christina, even Isabella II. would no longer find their Spain. They would find now within it full liberty—liberty of the press, liberty of assemblage, of association, of public trial, popular jury, civil marriage, and finally universal suffrage. Even in manners this transformation is visible; tolerance is acclimated in this classic land of intolerance.

During the first years of the constitutional monarchy republican opposition was very strong, but stronger and more dangerous still, even when Don Carlos the pretender to the throne had been banished, was the monarchical opposition, the opposition of one branch of the royal house to the other branch. It was a duel to the knife between them. Between these two cross fires, Carlism on the one side and republicanism on the other, the position was most embarrassing.

At its beginning the restored monarchy was only a compromise. The question whether it should adopt the old system of government or one more democratic remained to be settled. The manifesto which the prince, Alfonso XII., from Sandhurst, England, where he was living in exile with his mother when he was recalled to become king, had addressed to Spain, affirmed that the remedy lay in the reestablishment of monarchy on a "hereditary and representative" basis, and from the beginning to the end of this document these two words were closely joined, and this conjunction was a happy one for the government. "Hereditary" caught the attention of the

royalists, and "representative," that of the republicans, and won many from both parties to the side of the Restoration.

For twenty years the history of the Restoration and that of Don Emilio Castelar have mingled. No one more energetically than he combatted it at the beginning denouncing it as an unjustifiable dictatorship. No one more nobly than he spoke for the republic, killed through the faults of republicans. No one more severely than he attacked the sacrilegious mania for *pronunciamientos*, and that kind of chronic exhaustion which delivered Spain to the caprice of the first daring general.

The restored monarchy once established, all that M. Castelar and his friends could promise it was their good will, but a good will which is simply passive, and in a political sense, is the opposite of violence. But as the years succeeded one another and liberties succeeded one another, their attitude kept changing. M. Castelar and the monarchy kept approaching one another; both were being transformed. In a speech delivered before Congress in 1888 he said, "I wish to say, in clear tones and in plain words, that I support this government, because it has given religious liberty, scientific liberty, liberty of the press, liberty of assembling, liberty of association, the jury, universal suffrage. And I have no personal interest in saying this. I can seek nothing in a monarchy; I do not wish to gain anything in a monarchy; I ought not to gain anything in a monarchy. I am a historic republican, an intransigent republican, a lifelong republican, a republican by conviction and from conscience. Who doubts my republicanism offends and calumniates me, so I am seeking nothing in a monarchy. But as I said to my own party on a certain memorable night, 'Our republic will be the formula for this generation if you succeed in making it conservative,' so I say now to your party, 'Your monarchy will be the formula of this generation if you succeed in making it democratic.'"

It is, perhaps, M. Castelar, who next after M. Canovas del Castillo, has done most for the restored monarchy, not in

adjudging it at last a certificate of liberalism and democracy, but in forcing it to earn this certificate, in holding constantly before its eyes the picture of democracy and of the modern world. For having served monarchy thus well, the republicans cannot pardon him.

The monarchy possessed over the republic one great superiority: it knew how to make itself an opportunist in the best sense of the word, that which the republic did not know. Opportunism, for the restored monarchy, consisted in making itself liberal and even quite democratic. It was as if an interior voice sounding up from the depths of history said to the people, "There is only one power in the world which can save the nation and it is the one which out of ten Mussulman kingdoms and five or six Christian kingdoms can make a united Spain. That power is monarchy."

The monarchy has succeeded because it is national. It counts for nothing that the Republicans recall that it was not the Bourbons who gained the victory over the Moslem dynasty of the Almohades in the thirteenth century at the battle of Navas de Tolosa, or retook Granada from the Moorish kings, or united Aragon to Castile in the fifteenth century, or created and sustained the immense Spanish empire in both hemispheres, in all continents and all oceans, in the sixteenth century; it is in vain that they claim that with the advent of the Bourbons was accentuated and precipitated the decadence of Spain. On the other hand it also counts for nothing that the Carlists say that this Bourbon king is not the legitimate Bourbon, not the true king of Spain.

It would have been too soon, at its beginning in 1874, to speak of new liberties for the monarchy, for just preceding its establishment the whole country and every part of the country had been conducted entirely without regard to legal order. The republic had so disgusted Spain by its utter lack of government that the best method of succeeding in this new attempt was thought to be that of making all feel that there was now a government. Then it was that the wisdom of M. Canovas del Castillo led suc-

cessfully up to the needed change. After the monarchy was once established in an orderly and legal manner, he began gradually to teach that it ought also to become liberal; that it ought to be liberal in its constitution and in its institutions.

The most indispensable of the conditions of this new *régime* was that there should exist parties which should really be parties, not sects or factions. The ideal would be, two great parties, organized, disciplined, and maneuvered by their chiefs, like the Whigs and the Tories of the English Parliament. Moderation should be their cardinal virtue, not only in language, but in conduct. The existence of these two parties equally constitutional, with their differing programs, implied that they would alternate with each other in holding power. Their regular succession would demand that each party allow the opposite one to introduce into the government during its reign different dispositions from those which the first party in its turn had instituted. Thus there would be practically taught and enforced the principles of liberality. This was the secret of the policy of M. Canovas, and the secret of the success of the Restoration.

In this regard, the event of most importance, perhaps, in the twenty years since the overthrow of the republic was the formation of the party of the Left, a liberal party which formed the needed counterpoise to the conservative Right, acting upon the latter sometimes as a stimulant, sometimes as a bridle. By this means the monarchy gained its medium of progress after its medium of conservatism, its medium of liberty after its medium of order.

The master workman of the Restoration was M. Canovas del Castillo. More than any other he prepared it, led it on, established it. He, in some sort, thought it out, only to realize it afterwards. He is a statesman of the high order of Guizot and Thiers. It was he who designed the whole, and it is he who is the true king of Spain; the monarchy sprang full armed from his brain.

The liberal party, coming thus in its turn, fulfilled a large rôle, which was the modern-

izing and the democratizing of the monarchy. The leader of the party was M. Sagasta, formerly called a conspirator against the throne of Isabella II. and not now allowed to forget the taunt. It is he who caused new sap to flow through the old roots of the monarchy which M. Canovas restored.

It is an interesting spectacle to see these two men, M. Sagasta, the chief of the liberals, and M. Canovas, the chief of the conservatives, pitted against each other in argument. For amateurs such an event forms a regal ending to a parliamentary scrimmage. M. Sagasta, sitting in his place on the bench of blue velvet reserved for the ministers, is called out by some one on the right,—M. Silvela or M. Robledo,—who stings him with epigrams, prods him with a multitude of thrusts. Don Praxedes, the moderator, shakes his head, raps upon his desk, calls for order. The majority in the rear try to excite M. Sagasta by their clamors. Finally he feels himself moved, sustained, pushed forward, and he charges. . . . The Chamber and the galleries vibrate with applause when he has done.

Then deliberately M. Canovas del Castillo rises and addresses the president. Up to the end he had the patience to be silent, allowing the passion of the parties to rise. He begins in a low tone, without figures of speech, without eloquence, a familiar and quiet discourse which seems improvised and entirely wanting in any art or artifices, but which will bear the closest re-reading. It is in a style the most chaste, of a composition the most learned, perfectly joined in its several parts, nervous, rapid, and of all the speeches which could be made upon the same subject, the most demonstrative and the most lively, the most philosophical and the most politic.

M. Sagasta, if he replies, proceeds by exclamations, by cutting phrases. From time to time there is a fine movement, a fine anger, a fine eloquence,—an eloquence of the tribune, almost of the demagogue,—an

energy which expends itself in cries and dissipates itself in gestures.

Just because M. Sagasta is the absolute opposite, the living antithesis of M. Canovas, the success of the Restoration is largely due to them both, the one having established the traditional monarchy, the other having modernized it, and neither undoing what his rival has done.

Some other secondary causes of the success of the monarchy might be indicated. One is that Spain has kept largely aloof from European politics. Another cause, more delicate to indicate, but not less efficacious perhaps, was the death of King Alfonso XII. Premature and sad, it threw Spain again face to face with an enigma, the result of which was the carrying of the liberals into power and the substituting for a king well-intentioned, without doubt, but who could not hold himself from all the seductions of military glory or of monarchical power, the necessarily pacific and temperate regency of a child under the protection of a woman.

A third cause is that this woman is a princess of superior tact, of a nobleness of soul, of a purity of life, which commands veneration. She is devoted, even to self-sacrifice, to the greatest and the smallest duties; is as diligent as an old statesman, and desirous of learning; is open to all council, sweet under every misfortune, and filled with pride and love for Spain. She is an admirable queen in her office as queen, and an admirable mother in her duties as mother; so maternally queen and so royally mother, that the homage of all parties falls respectfully at her feet. The fortunes of dynasties depends not less upon queens than upon kings, especially when the regency makes them at once queens and kings.

The Restoration has placed Spain back in the position she occupied centuries ago. The whole settlement of the problem now for her depends upon her remaining modern.

WOMAN'S COUNCIL TABLE. A SENSIBLE VIEW OF COURTSHIP.

BY LUCY BARNARD COPE.

YOUNG people are too apt to regard courtship as mere romantic experience leading to some flowery gate of fairy-land, beyond which hangs in a dreamy sky the perpetually waxing honeymoon of love. Notwithstanding the truth which makes an optimistic view of any prospect better than its pessimistic opposite, there is yet a very dangerous fallacy in refusing to see the practical difficulties besetting even the most wisely chosen and carefully pre-arranged plans for compassing happiness; and, stripped of all decoration, courtship is but a form of planning for future lifelong pleasure in the highest sense.

Among the middle and lower classes of our country courtship is scarcely distinguished from the haphazard social intercourse by which young people of opposite sexes enjoy one another's company without any especial regard to matrimonial probabilities. Parents themselves indulge in very loose consideration of what may prove to be the turning-point in the lives of their children.

Courtship is the preliminary survey of the matrimonial field with a view to the most solemn, sacred, and important contract that two human beings can possibly be parties to, a contract which is the true basis of highest civilization.

What does it mean when a young man and a young woman, being mutually attracted, begin to seek each other's society and separate themselves to a certain degree from the rest of their young companions? It is not, or at least it should not be, a mere frivolous, selfish desire to enjoy themselves at the expense of general society. There is potential matrimony in every turn of this sort.

The wise parent understands how Love lies in ambush for lads and lasses and good care is taken that girls be not exposed to

his assaults at too early an age. The contract of matrimony demands the consideration and criticism of maturity and must have more than mere youthful passion and romantic imagination to rest upon; for while pure and perfect love ever has been and ever will be prerequisite to perfect marriage the material practicalities of human affairs exact their added claim to attention and enforce their values in making up the account.

We have reached a point in the evolution of our civilization where we may as well cast aside delusive and childish notions on the subject of courtship and marriage. We can but see and know that courtship is not a thing to be ashamed of; it does not demand a dark corner into which lovers must skulk like culprits; nor is it a play-time with nothing in it better than senseless billing and cooing. Our sons and daughters of marriageable age surely have a broader and firmer grasp of life's realities than would be indicated by treating the preliminary steps toward matrimony with maudlin sentimentality or with childish frivolity. The sensible view is the only safe view, and it must necessarily comprehend the material, social, and moral elements of the contract under consideration.

Parents are learning, slowly enough to be sure, that in order to be of highest service to their children they must make comrades of them and so enter into their lives on a plane of confidence and open dealing. The old *régime* of arbitrary dictation has passed away; the influence of scientific investigation is taking the place of sentimental tradition in the family circle. Heredity and the dangers and inconveniences of physical immaturity and the many bars to happy marriage arising out of physiological or sociological conditions are freely discussed in the best regulated fami-

lies with a view to the enlightenment of the children in a field of interest soon to absorb their whole attention, for a time at least, and a large part of it during life.

In taking a healthy, optimistic attitude toward our children in the heyday of their blossoming lives we may at the same time easily impress them with the practical details of domestic exactions and conjugal exigencies to the extent of preparing and fortifying them against disappointment.

Courtship is not for the immature; the time is past for the encouragement of marriage between mere children, and we have to recognize the fact that it is men and women, without experience, yet men and women, that we are called upon to aid, enhearten and bid good speed down the way of love. Every word spoken to them regarding courtship and matrimony should be rich with the essence of practical common

sense. Romance and sentimentality are well enough in poetry and fiction. Practical domestic life is neither poetry nor fiction; it is reality, a composite of joy, sorrow, success, disappointment, serenity, vexation; it is the average sum of human experience.

Courtship is an effort to choose a mate for life; two home makers are considering a copartnership; the fate of unnumbered future generations is being settled. If we look straight into the countenance of Nature and at the same time keep fully aware of what civilization exacts we shall feel the immense importance of what is going on yonder where the young man and his sweetheart sit apart from the crowd. A sacred contract is being negotiated; and upon the outcome of a few million contracts like that depends the whole future of the human race.

THE REVIVAL OF AMERICANISM.

BY ELLEN HARDIN WALWORTH.

THE sentiment of patriotism is exalted and inspires noble deeds, yet we may not deny that it bears another interpretation. This adverse view of patriotism is the unpopular side of the question, and represents one of those advanced ideas that creep along the undercurrents of the world of thought for many decades before it fairly comes to the surface. The international world is not yet ready for the serious thought of an obliteration of the lines that divide the life of nations, or the prejudices of nations, if it be so considered. Next to love of self comes love of country; love of family and of home is so closely allied with love of country as to allow small differentiation in these sentiments. It is the personal quality of patriotism that supplies its force and its extended influence.

In the United States our patriotism has not failed since the adoption of the Declaration of Independence, but it has been singularly evolved through various stages of

growth and apparent rest. Politics has exercised a control over the expressions of patriotism but has not grasped the real power that lies in this sentiment, usually dormant in the human heart unless aroused by an external cause. In the history of this country, as in that of all others, the principal exercise of this sentiment has been called forth by the loud and stirring blasts of war. No single expression is more typical of this power of war than that which sprang involuntarily and heroically from the lips of Nathan Hale: "I regret that I have but one life to give for my country." This is the epitome of patriotism as inspired by war. And who shall rightfully question the sublimity of such sacrifice, or by any argument for peace in the future, lessen in one degree the heroism of the past?

The present craze for ancestors in this country, and the insistence of sons and daughters of the Revolution and of the colonial forefathers that the deeds of the past shall be rec-

ognized, is a kind of protest against the overshadowing future that threatens to condemn war. In that future there is dimly discerned a new force, the power of arbitration, the evolution of diplomacy into the international judicial court. Then diplomacy will yield the scepter of expediency to the scales of justice. In that future they also discern that other power which we so vaguely call humanitarianism. This misty theory of humanitarianism is destined to be filtered down to well-defined lines and sharp limitations before it becomes a practical power for the advancement of the human race. In its present form it covers a multitude of follies and some errors. In the meantime the old-fashioned sentiment of patriotism holds its own, and has acquired a new development in the recent revival of Americanism throughout the country.

This movement is apparent in many directions. Statistics might be collected to indicate the greater interest manifested within five years in a celebration of all national anniversaries, and the higher order of literary and historical merit to be noticed in the addresses on these occasions. The number of historical societies for the collection and preservation of American history would be found to have largely increased. Efforts have been made to teach the school children a respect for the flag, and other national symbolism is encouraged. The aspiration to create an ideal that shall exist in the popular mind as something typical of the nation is evident in these and other efforts. A review of legislation at Washington and in the state Legislatures will show numerous bills introduced that prove a newly awakened sentiment of strong national feeling.

Patriotism as distinctly American, beginning with the revolution, came near being wrecked before the constitution of the United States was adopted and suffered imminent peril in the last years of the eighteenth century. It was stimulated by the War of 1812, and was nearly smothered by the worship of "self-made men" for many years; it then awoke to a species of spread eagle bombast that was calculated to drive the genuine sentiment quite out of the hearts of the people.

H-Dec.

The war with Mexico and the pride of conquest brought an outburst of real enthusiasm but this was soon driven into sectionalism and state supremacy by the contentions over the political aspects of slavery. The supreme trial of national life in the Civil War, and the angry and pathetic aftermath of that contest left the pure fire of patriotism smothered with *débris* in some places, flaring with false lights in others, but burning with a steady and pure flame here and there all over the country. During this time the evils of excessive wealth among our own people and the evils of imported ignorance and vice from abroad have grown from the state of a fondled darling each, to a pair of monsters that the ordinary native American now contemplates with a vague dread born of the unknown. We have worshiped money, our first darling, and, behold, we have our gods! But we forbid them to rule us. We have opened our doors to the pests of the world, our second darling; they swarm about us like a pest of locusts, and, behold, they, too, would rule us! Shall we submit to the one or the other? This is the problem the American ponders, and as he broods over these things he looks now and again at the old flag as a star of hope. Sentiment, the forerunner of action, is aroused, memory revives the sense of ownership associated with the lives of his forefathers, and Americanism is revived.

The ordinary American has a respect for the rights of others and a reserve of good sense that brings him back to a sense of justice even if he is led away for a time. He does not object to the foreigner as a foreigner for he knows very well what America owes to them. It is the development of foreign principles and ideas of government against which he protests. Foreigners and their children must acquiesce in American ideas of government, both in its republicanism and in its conservatism. This is a profound conviction that underlies the new impulse of Americanism. The spirit of 1776 is again aroused to a sense of the value of liberty, and to the fact that liberty is not so secure that vigilance may be relaxed.

The indications of this feeling may easily

escape notice. To some they appear as the pastime of the idle, to others as an imitation of the follies of an aristocracy. Old homesteads, attics, and the book-shelves of libraries are being searched in the thirteen original states for the history of families who settled the country or helped the cause of Independence.

This is an important feature of the new Americanism for it is developing the history of the country in a way that is truly educational; it is not only the records of individuals and families that come to light in these researches, but the resolutions passed and meetings held in various places in the cause of liberty and the freedom of the courts, in the beginning, and of independence

when that alone would secure liberty. By these researches patriotic organizations, otherwise ephemeral, are evolved into permanent historical bodies of earnest activity and large influence; they are the outward expression of the present revival of republican Americanism. It is the old leaven rising once more to the surface, it will develop a new and strong phase of our national life. Money is being weighed in the balance and will not rule in undisputed sovereignty as it has done; we are not destined to be a plutocracy. Neither are we a mere heterogenous crowd of ill-assorted nationalities; we have reached a stage in our national growth where we are self-conscious; we realize our responsibilities, our powers, and our limitations.

AT MICHAELMAS.

"We 'll know all our fortunes."—*Shakespeare.*

BY MARTHA YOUNG.

WHEN English air was ripe with June
And English birds sang all in tune,
Mabel and Mary, Jane and Anne
Adown the bloomy hedgerow ran—
Each where the crab-tree stretched its thorns
(Round, rosy crabs each limb adorns)
Gathered of apples goodly store
Yet shook the fruity boughs for more.
These are the fortune-trees to-day,
For from these apples maidens may
Discover what their fates shall be
All in the gold futurity.

See! up the farmhouse garret stair
Trip the four maidens passing fair;
In silence all and yet with smiles
Each maid her petty fear beguiles;
Each in the dark a name doth trace,
An apple in each letter's place—
They say the charm each three times o'er.
Till Michaelmas they'll come no more
To view the fortune-apples laid—
A lassie's love to tell and aid.
On Michaelmas may each one find
The fruit deposed to her mind!

Lo! now September's wealth has come

Old England sings her harvest-home,
Michaelmas Day has come again
With ganging leader's "bumping" reign.
O'er beck, and pond, sunk-fence, through hedge,
E'en to the precipice-steep ledge
The "ganging leader" takes his flock
That may not stay for brake or rock;
Woe to the traveler they meet,
To "bump" him is a jolly feat.
Plum-cake and ale free at each inn
Makes every village street a din!

Then when the roasted goose is gone
(Good luck thereby a whole year won!)
Mabel and Mary, Anne and Jane
Trip up the garret stair again.
Ah!—Mabel's apples wrinkled—see!
A worn old man her love will be!
Mary's are yet all plump and round:
For her a youthful swain is found.
Some mischief wind swept Anne's away:
A spinster's lot,—a-lack-a-day!
There Jane's all lie in fair array:
Old Christmas brings her wedding day!

L'Envoi.

O gay old time! O good old time!—
Though superstition's sway was prime—
Thou livest now but in old rhyme,
O quaint old-fashioned, good old time!

THE CHARM OF VARIETY IN LIFE.

BY HELEN MARSHALL NORTH.

STUDY the decorations on a collection of Japanese art treasures, vases, fans, embroideries, tea things, ivory carvings, or picture books, and your first impression will doubtless be one of surprise at the variety and fertility of design and application. There is the brave cone of Fusi-yama repeated again and again, but Fusi-yama is never twice in the same position. There are cherry blossoms and chrysanthemums, flying dragons and rising suns, fish and creeping things, diaper work and medallions, fighting horse-men and slant-eyed divinities, but when have you seen one decoration just like another? The Japanese understands the charm of variety and this is one reason why the eye loves to dwell upon Japanese workmanship.

The effect of sameness and repetition is to bring heaviness and dullness of spirit. Notice the houses in which ornaments and furniture are always disposed in precisely the same relative positions,—where bric-a-brac and chairs, books, lamps, and pictures are never changed in position from year to year; and while the rule has exceptions, the occupants of that home are quite likely to think in grooves—to follow out old thought-paths, to reject with uneasiness any approach to innovation.

Youth and happiness, love and laughter, music and motion, are naturally connected with variety. The young apple blossoms blush and perfume the air in an infinite variety of shapes and colors; the beech pebble never repeats itself; the bird's plumage is not like that of his fellow-warbler; the butterfly has its individual notions of dress.

Hearts oppressed by care are lightened by variety. The physician who speaks of a change of climate generally means change of scene. The familiar objects about us produce no perceptible emotions, perhaps, when we are happy, but in seasons of care and grief, their dull, stupid placidity wears into the very soul. Change the surroundings by absence, and how good and glad looks the poor world which we have been so ready to blame. The new abiding-place may be far less elegant and costly than the old, but the air of newness partakes of the air of Paradise itself to the wearied spirit.

There are a few happy souls who are never conscious of monotony. The Philosopher of the Paris Attic never grows weary of his outlook. There is always the charm of freshness in his view because his own spirit is constantly interested in the works and ways of his fellow-men. A single trip to Sèvres, sufficiently commonplace to the ordinary traveler, fairly sparkles with agreeable variety. He meets two hard-working women who are tasting the delights of a first trip in the cars, and their emotions are to him of more interest than the decisions of the president-general. The self-denial of these poor sisters who give to the girl injured by a powder-explosion the price of their return tickets and happily walk over the dusty homeward miles, furnishes a series of delightful thoughts and reflections to our genial Philosopher.

Many a wife, mother, or sister makes the mistake of clinging to a monotonous system of dressing. It is easier, when cares crowd and duties clamor, to wear the same costume day after day. We say that other things are more necessary, that food and other home comforts are of greater importance than a variety in dress, and fail to realize, until

some leisure day we do break away into a sunny variation of pleasant dressing, how much good cheer may spring from a fresh *jabot* or a few crimps.

The average canary bird is one of the most monotonous and wearying of pets. He is not to blame for it, poor thing. Captivity has few resources which are open to the capacity of a canary. But the incessant, monotonous hopping from perch to perch, the endless picking at tiny seeds, the unvarying, three-cornered expression, are singularly lacking in charm. A sturdy parrot has interesting moods and an amusing medium of expression, when he chooses to use it; the humble cat has a dozen tricks and is always ready for a new one; the jackdaw and terrier, the crow and the squirrel, have many ways of looking at life and proclaiming their interest and delight.

Perhaps the real secret of living in the charm of variety might be extracted from a rich nugget of the Attic Philosopher again: "Things are nothing in themselves; the thoughts which we attach to them alone give them value." Looking at old landmarks from a new angle is a virtual change of sight.

Washington Irving has so poetically interpreted the charm of variety in a sea-voyage that one hesitates to reaffirm the truth of his sentiment. The sea-voyage of the physician's prescription includes not only a change of thought induced by mingling with strangers, generally care-free for the brief interval, at least, but an actual change of element. We are accustomed to the steadfast old earth; we have long trusted it, gloried in its sunrises and sunsets, its clouds and storms. On shipboard, even the foundation element is new and we make new acquaintance with the heavens above, newly-near, and the earth beneath, because at first, we must think down to where we suppose the bottom of the sea is. The variety entrances us. The old brood of cares slowly rises, takes wing and seeks a long flight. There are other worlds than ours, and we never again return to the old place, because we have suffered not only a sea-change but a soul-change.

THE LOST FRIEND.

A TURKISH STORY.

BY RUDOLF LINDAU.

TRANSLATED FOR "THE CHAUTAUQUAN" FROM THE GERMAN "KUNDSCHAU."

SADIK BEY and Raif Bey came from Asia Minor where they were neighbor children. When yet in the harem entrusted to the care of the women, they had played together, and later, until their sixteenth year, had shared all their youthful joys and sorrows—but not equally, although the one who fared the worse never complained of his lot. Cheerful, noble Sadik loved Raif, therefore he took pleasure in yielding everything he possessed to his friend, and tyrannical, selfish Raif permitted Sadik to love him, granting in return his companionship and a passably warm friendly interest.

But while Raif early became aware of this inequality in their giving and exulted in it because he considered it an indication of his superiority, Sadik did not notice it in the least.

Sadik Bey and Raif Bey were fine, handsome lads, both descended from distinguished old families; Sadik, the son of Tschapanoglu, from the old valley princes of Derebey; Raif, son of Hussein Bey, from the once powerful and rich race of Spartaly.

Sadik Bey would, without doubt, have followed in the footsteps of his father, and ended his life on the property where he was born, had not his beloved Raif inspired him to other ambitions. When they were twelve years old, Raif had imparted to the admiring Sadik, that as soon as his education was finished under the paternal roof, he was going to Stambul for he intended to become a rich and influential man. Sadik thereupon had immediately declared that he would go to Stambul, too, and gain distinction and wealth.

Among the various tutors employed in Sadik's and Raif's education, was received into Tschapanoglu's home, at about this time, a teacher of French called Achmed Effendi—a Mussulman of course, for the descendants of the valley princes would not

have endured an unbeliever in the neighborhood—who, before he had come to Asia Minor, had given instruction in French to the son of a high Turkish civil official in Stambul. This high official was an old friend of Tschapanoglu and at his recommendation the instructor in French had come to Asia Minor to instruct Sadik Bey. Achmed Effendi was an upright, educated man. He quickly acquired a sort of fatherly interest in his well-behaved charge, and often in answer to Sadik's inquiries imparted wisdom about subjects that had nothing to do with the French language.

From Achmed Effendi, Sadik Bey learned that the best way to enter high official positions was first to gain admission to one of the bureaus, called a "kalem," of the Sublime Porte. Once in the kalem how quickly and how far he was promoted would depend on Sadik's activity. However his ancestry and influential friends would be of service to him and with Allah's help he might hope to win a high place in the world. But he must be upright. More than this Achmed Effendi would not ask of him, but to be upright, according to the prophet, meant a continual struggle for all the manly virtues: honesty, bravery, love of truth, charity, purity of body and soul.

Little Sadik knowingly nodded his head: "I will be upright, Effendi, be sure of that."

Raif, too, looked knowing when he had received Sadik's news; however he said nothing about taking pains to be upright, but replied:

"The Spartalys are not less noble than the Derebeys; I will rise as high as you."

"Of course you will," answered Sadik, "and I would not wish otherwise. How could I think of ever having the right to order you about?"

"You never will have the right," exclaimed

Raif wrathfully. Sadik stepped back in amazement, but immediately approached his companion again and said,

"Do not be angry with me. If I have given you offense it was not intentional."

Raif made no reply and the incident seemed to have dropped completely. Only on his way home Sadik recalled with bitter self-reproach that he had wounded his friend with his tactlessness.

When both boys were in their seventeenth year, Raif's father came to Sadik's father asking him to use his influence in gaining admission for Raif to some government office.

"I will do it with pleasure," answered Sadik's father. "I will write to-day to Jsett Mollah, an influential man, on whose friendship I can rely. Indeed I thank you, Hussein, for giving me the opportunity to do you a favor."

Soon Hussein Bey departed and Tschapanoglu called Sadik to write for him the promised letter; for Sadik had an aptitude in this direction, and on different occasions had served as secretary to his father.

As he received the command to write to Jsett Mollah he bowed respectfully and said,

"It would make me happy, father, if you had directed me to write my name in the letter just below Raif's, asking the same favor for me that will be shown to Raif. I too desire, with your permission, to become a civil officer, and should like to enter with my friend Raif the calling in which I will strive to do my father honor."

Tschapanoglu was not astonished at this request and had no objections to it.

About three weeks later Jsett's answer was received. It bade Raif and Sadik repair immediately to Stambul and present themselves to him. He would then conduct them to the Sublime Porte, where their reception in a kalem was assured.

Before the answer arrived, Sadik was prone on a sick bed. His speedy recovery to health was not to be thought of, and so Hussein Bey after consulting with Tschapanoglu, decided to let Raif Bey journey alone to Stambul. Three weeks had passed

before Sadik Bey knew of this, for he had been so weak that they had refrained from telling him what without doubt would excite him. When the convalescent began to ask frequently to see his friend, Tschapanoglu told him that at his request Raif had gone on ahead to select suitable quarters for the two boys. All he had to do now was to get well quickly and then he could soon join his friend Raif.

The patient tried hard to hasten his recovery, following all the directions of the physician most conscientiously, but as soon as he gained a little strength the fever pulled him down again, till Tschapanoglu finally despaired of his son's life. Then unexpectedly there was an improvement in the patient's condition. This time he knew that the fever had left him, and bowing toward the east in fervent prayer gave thanks that his life had been spared. Two months later he was strong enough to make the journey to Stambul accompanied by a trusty servant.

Upon his arrival in Stambul Sadik immediately presented himself to his father's friend. He was cordially received by the venerable gentleman, and from him learned that he would enter the same kalem with Raif Bey. At the beginning of the usual business hours he could announce himself in person to Said Effendi at the bureau, where he might be sure of soon meeting Raif Bey who was an ambitious, punctual young man. And so it happened. Sadik had hardly greeted Said Effendi when Raif entered the room, and a hearty greeting took place between them.

Sadik found his friend improved very much in appearance. In the year of their separation Raif had grown tall and in spite of his youth had a dignified bearing. He wore a bright blue caftan of fine cloth, a splendid girdle, and a becoming turban folded artistically, neither too large nor too small, the turban of a distinguished young man who aims at no vulgar display but yet who wishes to distinguish himself in his attire from the common herd. Sadik, who had not taken his eyes from Raif's face, observed these externalities only when Raif

soon after they were seated, said,

"Your clothes are good enough for the country. In Stambul they are not fine enough for your rank. I will look after the necessary things. I suppose the pasha, your father, has supplied you with sufficient money to enable you to live here in a becoming manner?"

"The pasha has seen to it," replied Sadik. "I am well supplied with money."

During the next two years, Raif and Sadik were always together. Sadik was happy to be with his friend, and his innocent eyes and good heart did not permit him to see or feel or at least to dispute about the subordinate position given him in their common home, for Raif imposed on him the whole burden of the housekeeping and by far the greater share of the expense. No word of these irregularities, of course, ever reached outsiders. To them Sadik Bey, the son of Tschapanoglu, from the family of valley princes, was an eminent young man—and princely indeed were his tall form, noble countenance, his large, earnest, beautiful eyes, beaming with mildness and warmth of heart, that attracted all. He was the favorite of the kalem although he had not, as Raif had, taken pains for the sake of policy to gain a reputation for cleverness and virtue.

At the end of his three years' apprenticeship Raif received his hard-earned reward for good behavior. He had expressed a desire for a position in the finance ministry, and now he was entrusted to a post which, though it yielded him small pay, brought him often into the august presence of the minister of finance. The minister was pleased with his fine appearance and courtly manners but shortly more pleased that the young man was a trusty, speedy, and unusually apt officer. He therefore often trusted him with important business far in advance of that strictly within the sphere of his position, and Raif Bey showed so much sagacity that the minister promoted him accordingly.

Raif Bey bore his sudden fortune apparently with modesty, but to Sadik he boasted that he was the minister's right hand, with

careless familiarity implying that he oversaw all the business and was acquainted with all the mysteries of the great machine, of which in reality he was only one of many thousand wheels. But if his extravagant boasting was done with a view to making his friend envious, Raif could not have understood the noble simplicity of Sadik's heart. The thought that Raif must be exaggerating and falsifying did not occur to him; his beautiful honest eyes beamed in happy admiring pride at the success of his favorite companion.

"O, Raif, if only Allah grants you a long life you will reach your highest aim. How rejoiced I am over your well deserved success!"

Raif looked at his friend with a condescending smile and said,

"It seems that you have found out sooner than I anticipated that a Spartaly is not less great than a son of Derebey."

Sadik was astonished. "I do not understand you. What is it you say?"

"You do not understand me?" asked Raif coolly, feeling his uncontested advantage. "Have you forgotten the time you threatened to order me about when you as a Derebey should have gained the top round of the official ladder?"

"I cannot recall ever having said or even thought it," said Sadik, and after some consideration continued, "I never can have said it, you must have confused me with some one else."

"O, no, I am not mistaken," answered Raif, still smiling with condescension. "You provoked me too much at the time, but I have long ago forgiven it and now let it be forgotten."

"Then it must have been when I was delirious that I said it," said Sadik sadly; "I am sorry to have offended you."

"It is forgiven and forgotten," said Raif.

Sadik took him at his word, and soon banished the incident from his mind. He dimly remembered having once offended Raif but his illness had swept the particulars from his recollection.

One day Raif Bey surprised his friend Sadik with the news that they soon must

separate because he was about to marry. Raif and Sadik were now both twenty-three years old, already past the age when in Turkey it is customary for men to marry, but the news coming thus as a surprise made it all the harder for Sadik to part with him.

The next day Raif invited his friend to accompany him for a walk, and led him into a fine part of the city, where they stopped before a handsome new house.

"How do you like it?" asked Raif.

"It is beautiful," answered Sadik.

"I am glad you like it," Raif continued, "for I think we will spend many pleasant hours there."

"How so?"

"It is mine. I bought it a few days ago and hope soon to live there with my wife."

Several weeks later the marriage took place. Sadik knew that Raif had been industrious and frugal and when he heard that the bride was beautiful and rich and that her father had given them a fine new house he believed only the first half of it. When he returned to his lodgings everything reminded him of his departed friend Raif.

The next morning before he went to the ministry he betook himself to a matchmaker and entered into negotiations for a wife. He wanted a white girl, good-looking, young, and of pleasant disposition, and offered to pay from a hundred to a hundred and fifty pounds for her. In about three months Sadik Bey took for his wife, Mihir, a bright, pretty young girl, who seemed very happy and thankful to have for her husband such a mild, handsome, and distinguished gentleman as Sadik Bey. Sadik had to pay two hundred pounds for her, but he did not begrudge it, for at first sight Mihir impressed him favorably and he soon lost his heart to her.

His father Tschapanoglu, whom he dutifully had informed of his intentions, placed to his account a considerable sum, and with it the unassuming young couple established themselves comfortably in a pleasant, modest house in western Stambul. Sadik Bey took very much to heart the letter that his father sent along with the money for his marriage. His letter said that his possessions in Asia Minor were yielding very scant

income and requested Sadik to manage his affairs so that he could get along without assistance from home, at least for a time. Sadik resolved never again to be a burden to his father. His income was small, but he gave Mihir to understand that it must suffice for all their needs.

In the course of a few years Sadik had attained a position at the head of the bureau, and with his beloved Mihir was happy in this modest position. He had two beautiful healthy children who sweetened his life, and his income though very slowly had increased a little and sufficed to feed and clothe his family satisfactorily to Mihir's simple taste.

Soon Raif Bey was spoken of in Stambul as a well-to-do, then as a rich, and finally as a very rich man. It was known that he had bought considerable property, received thousands of pounds from his house rent only, and was interested in several banks where he had large sums to his credit. True, distinguished Turks shrugged their shoulders and smiled over the general secretary's greed of gold; but little businessmen spoke with admiration of his many kinds of successes. He could not well avoid an occasional pious donation—for fear he would be regarded with disfavor in high and influential positions—and on such occasions he did not skimp. But real generosity of heart which prompts to give without display, for the single motive of assisting humanity, was a stranger to Raif Bey.

Sadik Bey heard not infrequently among his acquaintances ill-natured remarks about Raif. He warmly defended his friend. "You do not know Raif Bey as I know him. He is noble and great and his mind from being engrossed in great things often overlooks little things."

One night Sadik's home fell a prey to the flames. He and his family barely escaped with their lives. One of Sadik's business companions immediately invited Sadik and his family to go home with him.

Early the next morning Sadik called on Raif and to his greeting, "What is the news?" responded,

"You do not appear to know that I have met with a great misfortune."

"No. What has happened?"

"My house burned down with all my goods and possessions."

"You are fortunate to escape alive. And what are you going to do now?"

"Build a new house, I suppose. What else could I do?"

"Yes, of course, of course," said Raif thoughtfully.

"And may I ask you to lend the money for it," Sadik continued simply and quietly.

"What?" exclaimed Raif quickly, and a painful convulsion passed over his haggard face. Sadik did not notice it. "Eight hundred pounds," he said calmly, "I think, will answer."

"Eight—hundred—pounds!" Raif snapped angrily, pausing after each word. "Why not eight thousand? It seems to you a paltry sum; to me, it is a big amount, more than my whole year's salary."

Sadik looked astonished and confused, incapable of saying a word.

"I see," Raif went on, "that it pleases you to-day to put credence in the lying, malicious report, which has been circulated for the express purpose of injuring me, that I am a rich, influential officer who in the finance ministry draws sustenance from both rain and sunshine, till I scarcely know what to do with all my money. In reality you know very well that there is not a word of truth in these foolish reports and that the money that in the course of time I have laid by has been saved by the hardest work, and amounts in all to only a few pounds."

Sadik simply looked at the general secretary. An indescribably sad expression had come over his face. Raif did not observe it. He was buried in his own thoughts. After a short pause, while he breathed heavily and moved uneasily about his seat, he spoke impressively,

"Why did you not make your request of the pasha, your father? Were it not more natural to receive a present from him than from a stranger? For it would be out and out a gift, since you must know as well as I that with your small salary you never could manage to pay even the interest on eight hundred pounds, much less the principal."

Sadik started to rise with dignity and silence from the divan on which he sat beside Raif. Raif laid his hand detainingly on his guest's shoulder:

"You will, no doubt, be embarrassed for the time," he said in a gentler voice, "and I will gladly stand by you so far as is in my power, until you can get word from your father. Come this afternoon to the ministry and there I will place fifty, yes, a hundred pounds to your account, and it shall be yours to say whether you will receive it as a gift or a loan."

With a slight movement Sadik shook off Raif's hand, rose slowly and bowed himself out of his presence without deigning to give his lost friend a single word or even look.

For a long time Sadik walked on, his eyes cast on the ground, without realizing where he went or what was going on about him. A deep sorrow gnawed at his heart. He felt that he had suffered another misfortune, greater than the loss of his goods, because it never could be restored. Suddenly he found himself outside the old city walls; he sat down in a lonely place, and tried to collect his distracted thoughts. He realized that all his life long he had been deceived in Raif. With a feeling of shame for his own blindness and of disgust for the man who a few hours before had been to him the embodiment of nobleness and greatness, and his best, most trusted friend, he said to himself, "I have been a blind fool; Raif is an ignoble soul. I will, Allah permitting, never see him again. That I have lost a true friend is my great misfortune; but the Master has opened my eyes to his falseness, therefore be He praised!"

Downcast and sad, Sadik returned home. His friends attributed his sad humor to the terrors of that awful night of the fire, for he told no one his new trouble, not even his loved and trusted wife Mihir, and the affair would have remained a secret between the two men had not Raif's evil conscience driven him to justifying himself, first at home to his wife and rich father-in-law, where he got no sympathy, and then to his business acquaintances. But although in the course of the day Raif's story had grown so

that it represented Sadik as an impudent sponger and himself as a noble friend to humanity, it never met with any success.

Nobody believed that Sadik Bey would put himself in a position to deserve Raif's slander. Those who knew him esteemed him as an honorable man, and the little charities which he did in secret won him more public friends than were won by Raif Bey by the great amounts for which his name shone on charitable lists.

Raif's own father-in-law visited Sadik and asked to be granted the honor of becoming his creditor, and he was not the only rich man who did so. At last the story of the two friends reached the sultan's ears. Full of mercy he sent for Sadik.

An hour later Sadik entered the imperial palace. Though conscious of no guilt, his heart beat fast as he thought of appearing before his ruler. Sadik never had been in his highness' presence before, but it had been a part of his education to learn court manners and he approached to the prescribed distance in faultless manner. There he remained standing, his eyes respectfully cast to the floor.

"It seems a misfortune has befallen you," said the sultan.

"My house burned down," replied Sadik.

With a slight movement of impatience the sultan continued: "I did not wish to speak of that. You have fallen out with Raif, the friend of your youth. Why?"

Sadik's lips trembled. He was silent.

"You know your duty to me when I ask you a question?" His voice was gentle.

"To tell the whole truth, to the best of my knowledge," answered Sadik softly.

"Now, proceed with your duty."

Sadik caught his breath. Involuntarily he laid his hand on his beating heart. The sultan looked with pity.

"After the fire," began Sadik, "I betook myself to Raif and asked of him a loan to rebuild my house. I see now it was a mistake on my part to do so, for possibly I could never have repaid the loan." He hesitated.

"Well? Go on."

"Raif made me aware of the mistake. He offered as a gift to put part of the sum

I asked to my credit. I did not accept, and left him."

"Is that the whole truth?"

Then Sadik bowed to the floor and said, "O, Effendimis, you now know all of it that I can tell you." He paused awhile, then added, with downcast eyes: "But I am no longer angry with Raif."

The sultan regarded him dumfounded, then his eyes lit up with an indescribably beautiful light. He left the room, returning with a heavy silken purse.

"Take this," he said, "and know that the caliph is the true protector of all good Mussulmen. You have lost a false friend and found a true one. Allah be praised! Go!"

Scarcely had Sadik departed when the sultan ordered a secretary to inform the minister of justice without delay that it was the sultan's will that an immediate and thorough investigation should be made into the affairs of Raif Spartaly's department of finance. If Raif could not show proof that his wealth had been acquired by honorable means, all his wealth wrung from the government should be confiscated, and he banished to the isle of Chios.

Before the sun went down Raif Bey and about twenty witnesses were called up, and it was conclusively proved that aside from the dowry that his wife had brought him, by far the larger part if indeed not all of his fortune had been won dishonorably. The sailors that carried Raif into banishment to Chios were instructed that any kindness shown Raif would be generously rewarded by his father-in-law. But nothing that could be done could bring joy to the banished man nor alleviate his sorrow. Six months later he died broken-hearted.

Raif's possessions, at the sultan's command, were applied to the erection of a charitable institution for the blind. Sadik continued to be beloved by all who knew him, and finally had cause to be satisfied with his lot as far as his ambitions were concerned, for on many occasions the sultan showed him special favor. Yet on his handsome and once care-free countenance there was a deep trace of sadness, and his discerning wife Mihir knew that Sadik Bey mourned his lost friend.

EDITOR'S OUTLOOK.

DR. CHARLES H. PARKHURST AND HIS BATTLE.

THE political revolution in New York City during the past month was not the work of politicians or political organizations, but rather it was the introduction of a moral idea into the city government by a preacher of the gospel.

Dr. Charles H. Parkhurst, as president of the Society for the Prevention of Vice and Crime, held a favorable relation to his organization as well as to the public for leading a reform movement in the New York police force. This he used in the face of fierce opposition from good men. Ministers of the gospel declared publicly against his methods. A number of influential newspapers opposed him. Some of the best men in his own church talked strongly against his methods. But he stood up in the face of all opposition, making speeches, preaching sermons, and writing articles which had so much influence over the public mind that to-day his cause is advocated by tens of thousands.

The New York Legislature appointed the Lexow committee, who in the name of the state of New York began an investigation which has unearthed so much of bribe taking and endorsement of crime on the part of the police and higher officials in the city government as to have shocked respectable people everywhere. At last a combination was made of all respectable Republicans, Democrats, Independents, and people who believe in law and public morals. They have elected their candidates for mayor, recorder, and the rest of the ticket over the regular Tammany organization, which is a great triumph for morality in what has been considered the most corrupt city government in this country.

One only need read the testimony of the Lexow committee to be convinced of the deep degradation to which men will descend in corrupting government, violating law, and oppressing the people while yet clothed with civil authority.

For more than ten years there have been gossip in the newspapers and rumors current among all classes of people in New York City, that grievous wrongs were being perpetrated, but never until Dr. Parkhurst

took hold of the matter has anybody succeeded in unmasking the perpetrators and bringing them to the bar of justice. It certainly is a great victory for the people, and since this is a government "of the people, by the people, and for the people," the nation may be congratulated as well as the good citizens of New York that this, the greatest commercial metropolis of the country, has been redeemed from its wicked oppressors.

Dr. Parkhurst is pastor of Madison Avenue Presbyterian church. He receives a salary of ten thousand dollars a year. There are a number of very rich men in his congregation. Mr. Eno, who owns the Fifth Avenue Hotel, Mr. Dodge, son of the late Hon. William E. Dodge, are among the members of his church. His church building faces Madison Square, opposite the Fifth Avenue Hotel. It is an old-fashioned structure with the organ and quartet choir at one end of the audience room and the pulpit at the other, with galleries running around the two sides and one end. His congregation did not fill his house before he began his reform movement, but now the people crowd to hear him so that at every service many stand in the galleries and about the doorways because they cannot be seated.

Dr. Parkhurst is a man of penetrating mind. His talents as a sermonizer do not run in the old grooves. He constructs a sermon on his own original plan, and adorns it with illustrations gathered from all sources. He applies a sermon with peculiar force to the present times, to individual character and practical experience. His delivery of a sermon is somewhat strained. He wears a gown with the conventional white necktie, uses a manuscript, and reads every word of his sermon. A part of the time he makes gestures with both fists clenched and held on an even line. He has a fashion of seeing-sawing, now on the right, now on the left foot. His voice is not very musical; it is rather metallic, lacking sympathy and at times too low for everybody to hear every word. His manner however is that of a sincere, earnest man preaching the gospel for the good he may do his fellows, and of a man engaged in a battle for the triumph of the right. He is not handsome, but has

a good figure. He would never draw people to him by sympathy in his tones of voice or his familiar style of oratory, but he does arouse men by his ideas as an agitator and organizer. In talent, and by reason of his success in doing good he stands at the very head of the ministry of the United States. Henry Ward Beecher is dead; Dr. Talmage has resigned his place; now Dr. Parkhurst and his reform come to the front.

But his work is only fairly begun. The iniquities to which he has called attention have only been exposed. Nobody has yet been convicted or punished for these crimes, except, politically, Tammany Hall has been defeated and new officers will take the place of the old ones in the city government. It will be necessary for Dr. Parkhurst to furnish the ideas and make suggestions concerning the future of this campaign. He must be the leader.

He has been honored by being elected an honorary member of the Union League. The New York *World* suggests a testimonial from the city to him. This is the point where, if Dr. Parkhurst is a weak man, he may lose his head. If he is made of the heroic stuff for which he now has credit he will not recognize political compliments, but will continue his work with his organization against social crime until this reform reaches its logical results. Otherwise the movement will be a failure and the victory won will simply be of a political and not a moral nature.

Great honor is due Dr. Parkhurst's church for its patience and forbearance in the early stages of this movement. If a preacher in charge of a church in almost any other denomination had used the methods Dr. Parkhurst did he would have been brought to trial and probably expelled. But the Presbyterian church which he serves and the whole connection of Presbyterians in the United States have rendered to good municipal government a valuable service by holding up the hands of Dr. Parkhurst in this battle. All hail to Dr. Parkhurst! Savonarola was great in Florence but Dr. Parkhurst is greater in this year 1894 in the city of New York.

A CHRISTMAS PROVERB.

"'Tis good to be merry and wise." At Christmas time especially a ready assent is given to this old saying. But with the assent it would be well to study its full meaning.

There is something in the spirit of the

time which is apt to bring out with force one part of the expression to the obscurity of the rest. It is a plain, simple statement so arranged as to make a well balanced sentence with the emphasis equally distributed. But when reflected in the actions of large classes of people it is seen that they make mistakes in its reading.

One class make it top heavy by rendering *sotto voce* the last two words. Merriment is the sole thought held in mind. At any cost the Christmas festivities must be prepared. From pocketbooks whose contents stern necessity demands shall be very evenly apportioned through the months of the year, undue allotments are taken. Many women overtax their strength in making elaborate preparations. Children are filled with such large expectancy that the realization is apt to be disappointing. Christmas gifts sent to friends are often so permeated with anxiety, weariness, or sacrifice as to make it utterly impossible to conceal these sorry elements. Even when wealth is at command there is danger of making similar mistakes. As a guard against such evils the motto should be made to read, "'Tis good to be merry and wise."

Another large group of people should have their attention called to the right import of the old saying by giving it another rendering. This group comprises those in whose hearts, apparently, no good impulses stir, who have allowed themselves to grow hard and to express a contempt for the deeds which brighten other lives. It comprises also those who push through life seeking their own pleasure regardless of others. All persons marred by such traits should have a special arrangement of the proverb for their consideration, which should read, "'Tis wise to be merry and good."

There exist still some persons who are anachronisms. They should have lived in the days of Cromwell or of the old Puritanical authors of the "blue laws." What impresses their distorted minds as wisdom and goodness makes up for them the *summum bonum* of life; there is no place in it for merriment. The transposition made for these people should read, "'Tis wise and good to be merry."

Well will it be for the world when all mankind has grown so honest, so simple and true, so filled with the spirit of Christ that neither at Christmas time nor any other time can there be any mistake in rendering the plain old proverb in its original form.

CURRENT HISTORY AND OPINION.*

FOR THE MONTH ENDING NOVEMBER 10.

JAMES ANTHONY FROUDE.

JAMES ANTHONY FROUDE, the English historian who died Oct. 20, in London, was born April 23, 1818, at Dartington, Devonshire, England. He was the youngest son of the archdeacon of Totness. His youthful environment was religious and scholarly. Educated at Westminster School and Oriel College, Oxford, and graduating in 1840 he took deacon's orders in 1844 in the Established Church, but soon turned his attention to literature almost exclusively. His literary career began with a novel, "Shadows of the Clouds," issued in 1847. His principal works are: "The Nemesis of Faith" (1849), "A History of England from the Fall of Wolsey to the Death of Elizabeth" (10 vols., 1859-67), "Short Studies on Great Subjects" (4 series, 1867-82), "The English in Ireland in the Eighteenth Century" (1871-1874, "Cæsar" (1879), "Bunyan," "Two Lectures on South Africa" (1880), "Thomas Carlyle: the First Forty Years of his Life" (1882), "Thomas Carlyle: a History of his Life in London" (1884), "Oceana," "The Two Chiefs of Dunboy" and "The English in the West Indies" (1889), "Life of Beaconsfield" (1890), "The Divorce of Catherine of Aragon" (1891), and "The Spanish Story of the Armada" (1892). In 1892 at the age of seventy-four, Froude became regius professor of modern history at Oxford, succeeding Professor Edward A. Freeman, whose death removed one of the most zealous critics of Froude's historical style. His latest work is "The Life and Letters of Erasmus," published shortly before his death in England and the United States.

Cleveland Leader. (Ohio.)

In industry, brilliance of style, and power of making history fascinating, Froude had few equals in any age or country. He was fertile, alert, powerful in controversy, and always interesting. His work covered a wide range and opened many fields of discussion and research. His faults were chiefly carelessness of justice or inability to command the judicial temper and breadth of view, hasty conclusions, and the exasperating habit of wresting facts, consciously or unconsciously, to suit the purpose or bias of his writings, even in his most serious and laborious historical work. He was a striking figure in the world of letters, but less admirable than picturesque and brilliant.

Chicago Inter-Ocean. (Ill.)

Mr. Froude came into prominence as a man of letters in 1856, when he published the first two volumes of his "History of England from the Fall of Wolsey to the Defeat of the Spanish Armada." Few literary productions ever created so much hostile criticism. All recognized its strictly literary merit and its thoroughness of research, but it was an attempt to reverse what is usually called "the verdict of history" in several respects, but more especially as regards Henry VIII. He was an ardent admirer and a bold apologist of a sovereign whose name had always been held in detestation for his gross sensuality and cruelty. The last of the Henrys is the Bluebeard of royalty, and when Mr. Froude undertook to present in clear and overshadowing outlines the better side of his character and reign there was a loud, shrill cry of indignation.

*This department, together with the book, "Europe in the Nineteenth Century," constitutes a Special C. L. S. C. Course, for the reading of which a seal is given.

The Public Ledger. (Philadelphia, Pa.)

James Anthony Froude, the eminent English writer, was a controversialist all his life, and now that he is dead he will become the subject of controversy. One thing upon which all commentators may unite is that he was a brilliant, forceful, entertaining writer. As to the value of his works they will seriously differ, and they have reason to do so. He was too much of an advocate to write history impartially, and his books have scarcely any value as works of reference, for they are not accepted as reliable by all scholars, and that of itself is sufficient to condemn them as histories.

San Francisco Examiner. (Cal.)

The death of James Anthony Froude gives another chance for the venerable observation that the last of the school of great writers is passing away, leaving no successors. Even if Froude is a great historian rather than the brilliant special pleader that his critics would have him, the race of historians and great writers has not closed. When Macaulay died the eulogists marked the end of the line of living historians. Yet Green and Freeman and Froude have built great and enduring, if less brilliant, works in the thirty-five years that have since passed. When Scott died, the last of the great novelists was proclaimed, yet Charles Dickens was then making the observations that in a few years flashed into the world in the merriment of Pickwick, Thackeray was passing through the vicissitudes that were to lead him to the first rank among novelists, Charlotte Brontë and George Eliot were living, and others who were to win a more moderate fame had entered the world.

DEATH OF ALEXANDER III., EMPEROR OF RUSSIA.



ALEXANDER III.

the emperor's position having served probably more than any other power in affording a guarantee of peace between European nations. The news of the emperor's death was received with deep concern throughout the world and in France he is mourned as the sincere friend and strongest ally of the French nation. Alexander III. was forty-nine years old at the time of his death. The czarina, who is a daughter of the king of Denmark and a sister of the princess of Wales and the king of Greece, together with three sons and two daughters survive the czar.

The Sun. (New York, N. Y.)

Dying in his fiftieth year, he ruled Russia only about half as long as did his father, and his reign cannot for a moment be compared with that of Alexander II. in respect of historical importance. Virtues undoubtedly he had; they were such as would reflect great credit on a plain man in a private station; but as regards his public career it must be said that at the outset he renounced a unique opportunity to regenerate his country and showed himself to the last a reactionist in his principles of government. If he refrained from disturbing the peace of Europe, it was partly because until quite recently he had no chance of facing the triple alliance with a prospect of success.

Atlanta Constitution. (Ga.)

The czar was more enlightened and humane than many of the Romanoffs, but his persecution of the Jews and of the Catholics was cruel and indefensible. Aside from these crimes against the helpless and innocent, Alexander made one of the best rulers that Russia has ever had. If he had great faults he had some great virtues. It may be said in his behalf that if he was a despot, he inherited his policy from a long line of tyrants. If he distrusted the people it must be recollected that he was in constant danger of assassination, and the attempts upon his life naturally made him bitter and revengeful.

Jewish Herald. (Boston, Mass.)

We are glad to announce that the tyrannic heart of Alexander III. beats no more. Was it not a sight to make angels weep and despots tremble, that the czar of all the Russias should be lying on

his sick bed imploring death; he, the persecutor of Jew and Gentile; he, the heartless prince whose cruel edicts have given so many to the whipping post, to Siberia for life, or to death. He is dead, and we welcome his benevolent grave.

The Times. (Philadelphia, Pa.)

Thoughtless American busy-bodies have talked about cruelty and barbarous despotism, but the whole effort of the late czar was to ameliorate the general condition of his people so far as it could be done with the instrumentalities at his command.

Public Ledger. (Philadelphia, Pa.)

He had but two cardinal principles of administration—one the suppression of the Nihilists who murdered his father; the other preservation of international peace. It is impossible to think of the death of the czar except as that of the peace keeper of Europe—an autocrat who was nevertheless an exemplary ruler in many ways, and one whose private virtues earned the respect of all men.

President Casimir-Périer of France.

He was France's strong and loyal friend.

La Presse. (Paris, France.)

All French patriots will be grieved by the sad news. The mourning will extend throughout France. The czar was a sincere partisan of peace and a devoted friend of our country. Our sorrow is unutterably deep, but there is no reason for despair, as the heir of Alexander III. will recognize the close bond uniting France and Russia. The sorrow of France will be the most convincing evidence to the son and

sovereign that the union of the nations, which for years has assured the peace, must remain and guarantee the peace in the future.

The Emperor of Germany.

The decrees of the emperor of Germany ordering mourning in the army and navy for Alexander III. read in part as follows:

"To honor the memory of Alexander III. of Russia, who to my greatest sorrow has departed this life, I order the Alexander III. Guards and the Alexander III. Uhlans to go into mourning for three weeks. No music shall be sounded during the first three days. Thus they will show that the German army shares my deepest pain for my most faithful friend and the most sincere guardian of the peace of

Europe: also that it remembers gratefully the kindness ever shown to it by the departed czar.

The Daily Chronicle. (London, Eng.)

Death calls forth human and personal emotions before which all political and public considerations subside. For doing his utmost to preserve Europe from war, millions who detest his ideas and the nature of his rule will respect his memory. We devoutly hope that his pacific views will be shared by his successor.

The Daily Graphic. (London, Eng.)

On the whole, the czar's influence was healthy. He leaves Russia distinctly happier, stronger, and more prosperous than in any other period of her history. He was faithful to his great trust as custodian of the European peace.

NICHOLAS II., THE NEW EMPEROR OF RUSSIA.



NICHOLAS II.

The accession of Emperor Nicholas II., eldest son of the late Alexander III., was proclaimed in St. Petersburg November 2. He is twenty-six years old and is betrothed to Princess Alix of Hesse-Darmstadt, a granddaughter of Queen Victoria and cousin of the emperor of Germany. It is impossible to estimate with any degree of accuracy the political disposition of the young emperor or to gauge in any reliable way his future public policy either as it relates to his own empire or its commanding position among the nations of Europe. His attitude toward the triple alliance is a question which interests all Europe and his future course is made the subject of general speculation. The proclamation issued by the new emperor announcing the death of his father is not regarded as furnishing a definite indication of the course which he will pursue. It reads in part as follows: "We in this sad and solemn hour, when ascending the ancestral throne of the Russian Empire and the Czardom of Poland and the Grand Duchy of Finland, indissolubly connected therewith, we, in the presence of the Most High, record our solemn vow that we will always make our sole aim the peaceful development of the power and glory of beloved Russia and the happiness of our subjects." In conclusion the proclamation directs that the oath of allegiance be taken to the new emperor and also to the Grand Duke George, his lineal successor, "until God shall vouchsafe to bless with a son the union into which the emperor is about to enter with the Princess Alix."

New Orleans Picayune. (La.)

The two most powerful thrones in Europe are now occupied by very young men. Emperor William of Germany was but a few years older than Nicholas when he ascended the throne. It must be admitted that Germany has lost nothing in prestige abroad or prosperity at home under her young emperor, hence it may be hoped that an equal good fortune is in store for Russia under Nicholas II.

The Daily News. (London, Eng.)

There are all the elements of a perfect understanding between the new monarch and his people, and it seems impossible to believe that the old repressive system will continue. Yet it can only be stopped on one condition. The assassins must give up their profession. Nihilism has proved a complete failure as a political force, for it cannot point to a single reform due to its agency. The nihilists have not even marked time during the reign of a liberal party.

Press Dispatch from London, Eng.

Persons who have been thrown into close contact with the Czar Nicholas II. during his visits to England say that he spoke English perfectly. His Majesty acquired his education from an English governess and tutors. When induced to talk freely he expressed liberal ideas and seemed to care nothing for the rights of kings. He showed no disposition to militarism, and was almost nervously fond of retirement. During his stay in London he preferred to spend his time quietly reading rather than in attendance at ceremonies. Solitary rambles through the streets seemed, too, to afford him much more amusement and pleasure than theater and opera going. He has openly professed a dislike for war, and his tendencies are in the direction of peace and his tastes and pursuits are simple.

London Correspondent of the Sun. (New York, N. Y.)

Speculation about the general foreign policy of

the young sovereign is endless, but it is only speculation. No one pretends to have a scrap of knowledge on the subject. It is known only that Nicholas II. is more cosmopolitan, and, in some sense, broader minded than his father, by reason of his wider travel, but it is a question whether this is an advantage in his position. It is usually admitted that he lacks his father's conservatism and unchangeable resolution. It was the latter quality which kept peace in Europe under provocation which, more than once, would have tempted a less determined man to let loose the dogs of war.

Paris Correspondent of the New York Herald, N. Y.

It is alarming to reflect that a young man of twenty-six, wholly without preparation hitherto for the terrible greatness of his mission, is about to be absolute master of one hundred and twenty million men. It is said that he is more liberal in his views than his father, and is anxious to continue the same pacific policy in relation to all the powers, but it is affirmed that personal ties of friendship link the present czar with Emperor William, which was not the case with Alexander III.

Berlin Correspondent of the United Press.

The young czar's intercourse with Emperor William and many German princes has shown that he is completely acquainted with Germany's domestic life and is in sympathy with German art and letters. Although he has occupied himself little with politics,

he is believed to have a judicious and cautious mind, which will not allow him to seek any quarrel with a neighbor and old friend. His alliance with the Princess Alix of Hesse, which was the emperor's cherished plan, will tend to cement the friendliness of his personal relations to the German courts.

The Gaulois. (Paris, France.)

Russia and France are more sisters than ever, since they weep for the same father. Nicholas II. will love France because Russia loves her. He personifies the soul of holy Russia.

Press Dispatch from Rome, Italy.

The Vatican is said to hope that the czar will continue the traditions of friendliness toward Rome which marked the last days of Alexander III. The Vatican believes that the death of the czar will in no way affect the French-Russian alliance, and it is said that so long as Cardinal Rampolla, who is an ardent friend of Russia, remains papal secretary of state, the adhesion of the Vatican to the French-Russian alliance will remain an article of pontifical faith.

Novoe Vremya. (St. Petersburg, Russia.)

His youth will not hinder his working for the highest good and exacting the right from all, especially those serving nearest him. The Russian nation has not hitherto been spoiled with too much happiness, and it will not be a difficult task to give it happiness.

THE COTTON STATES AND INTERNATIONAL EXPOSITION.

THE preliminary arrangements for the Cotton States and International Exposition, to be held in Atlanta, Georgia, in the autumn of 1895, have been made and the work of laying out the grounds and constructing the buildings is about to begin. A large government appropriation together with substantial local support and the widespread interest evidenced throughout the South in the undertaking have made the launching of the enterprise auspicious.

The Constitution. (Atlanta, Ga.)

The exposition moves on beautifully. There is not a hitch anywhere and those who are engaged in directing the great undertaking could not ask a more auspicious beginning. It will be the greatest success of the century, so far as the South is concerned.

With the endorsement of the government and the cordial co-operation of Spanish-America it goes without saying that our exposition will be one of the biggest ever held in this country.

Chicago Herald. (Ill.)

It has been christened The Cotton States and International Exposition, a name which it will be difficult for the people to remember, which must involve frequent explanations, and perhaps apologies, and which in no manner gives expression to the idea intended to be conveyed by its promoters. Governor Northen, of Georgia, in a recent letter takes a proper view of this subject when he says: "I understand that its scope will not be confined to those states known as the cotton

states proper, but that all the states of the South will be included. . . . Let us understand at the beginning that every southern state shall have a full and fair opportunity to display herself and the rivalry for precedents and development will be pleasant to look upon." The managers of the enterprise will find it greatly to the advantage of the exposition if the understanding which Governor Northen urges shall be made the prevailing and only one. To make it the great success it deserves to be all attempts to localize it in name or in scope should be defeated. It must have, of course, a comprehensive official title, and The Southern and International Exposition would express the idea and be high-sounding enough for official stationery. The South helped to make the World's Fair a success. Its response to our appeals was prompt and generous. The North in general, and Chicago in particular, appreciates this fact. The North in general and Chicago in particular, will help to make the southern exposition a success.

SHALL THE U. S. STANDING ARMY BE INCREASED?

THE annual report of Major-General Schofield, commanding the army, made during the month deals chiefly with the question of increasing the standing army of the United States. The part taken by the United States troops in the railroad strikes in the West last summer is reviewed and the report asserts that the country is now confronted with the necessity of making provision against both foreign aggression and domestic violence. General Schofield then urges the increase of the army in these terms:

"A considerable permanent increase in the enlisted strength of the army should be made, and a still further increase authorized to be made by the president when, in his judgment, an emergency requiring it may reasonably be foreseen. It is not a good military system in which the executive has no authority whatever to increase the effective strength of the army in time of need. The organization being fixed by law, with maximum and minimum limits of strength, the executive should be authorized to vary the enlisted strength between those limits according to his estimate of the necessities of the country. The cost of the suggested increase in the strength of the army would be utterly insignificant as compared with the damage which might have been done in one day in one city, if the military force assembled at that point had proved inadequate. The relation of the United States to the great military powers of Europe now exhibits a far greater disparity in respect to preparation for war than that which has existed between China and Japan. Will the people of the United States and their representatives have the modesty to appreciate and the wisdom to profit by this lesson?"

(Dem.) *The Post.* (Pittsburg, Pa.)

With cautious language General Schofield argues that the labor question in its wide ramifications makes an increase of the regular army a necessity. We do not believe the notion will ever become popular in this country that the labor question is to be determined by the regulars. When we give up the policy that the civil authorities aided by the state troops are fully adequate to meet disorders of this character, we surrender one of the distinctive principles of the American system of government.

(Rep.) *New York Tribune.* (N.Y.)

The *Tribune* is heartily in accord with General Schofield's views, having recommended repeatedly an increase of the army and emphasized the necessity for establishing large military posts in Chicago and other railway centers. The army has become an indispensable instrument for the suppression of mobs in serious emergencies; and Congress cannot afford to pass over the recommendations of General Schofield in silence.

(Labor.) *Washington Times.* (D.C.)

There is a great objection to the Schofield cure for modern evils. The discretionary power which he proposes to lodge in the hands of the president would be so vast and absolute that the mere thought of it is disturbing. An unscrupulous president, a pliant secretary of war, and a superserviceable commander of the army would enable the chief executive to perpetuate his power or dictate his successor. That is the South American method, where revolutions and presidential elections go hand in hand, but it is not a system which will be tolerated in the United States.

(Rep.) *The Journal.* (Kansas City, Mo.)

There is one feature of the recommendation of the commanding general that needs no study or discussion to any well-balanced American mind that

understands the principle upon which human liberty rests. His recommendation that the army may be increased at the discretion or will of the president is a departure from the safeguards of liberty that we are surprised to see in a grave public document from any department of the government.

(Dem.) *The World.* (New York, N.Y.)

General Schofield's plea for a larger army was to have been expected. It is the professional soldier's hobby. But the country does not need or want a larger army. Its present force is ample as a training school for officers and as a nucleus for an army which can be easily increased in case of need by the enlistment of the state militia.

(Ind.) *Philadelphia Times.* (Pa.)

As the report recommends an increase of the regular army and the fortification of the seacoast ports, it is certain to be assailed by those who profess to believe that the United States can whip all creation without any previous preparation. As against this sort of claptrap the dignified warnings of a man who has made the arts of war and defense the study and practice of his whole active life should be regarded as conclusive. Taking the humiliating condition of China in its present contest with a nation not one tenth its equal in territory and population and the riot crisis of last summer as illustrations of the necessity of an efficient military defense against armed invasion and domestic violence, General Schofield argues that the ratio of one soldier to fourteen square miles of territory and 2,800 of population constitutes a military force too small for the enforcement of the laws in case of riot and insurrection or for successful defense in case of an armed invasion. The source and thoughtful recommendations of this report make it one of the most remarkable documents ever addressed to the American people, and it ought not to go unheeded.

THE GENERAL ELECTIONS.

THE "Tidal Wave," one of the curiosities of American politics, this time Republican in character, manifested itself in the general elections held throughout the country on November 6. In thirty-one states elections took place for state officers or members of state Legislatures, twenty-one states electing governors. Representatives in Congress were elected in every state in the Union excepting Maine, Vermont, and Oregon, which had previously elected solid Republican delegations as usual. The results of the state elections are given below and these, together with the congressional returns, show widespread and unprecedented Republican gains especially at the expense of the Democrats in the South and the Populists in the West. A feature of general importance outside the state directly interested was the voting of women in Colorado for the first time on an equal footing with men. Other notable features in the state elections were the defeat of the equal suffrage amendment to the constitution in Kansas and the adoption of thirty-eight far-reaching amendments to the constitution in New York.

THE NEXT UNITED STATES SENATE.

By the election of Republican state Legislatures the Republicans will gain one U. S. senator each, in New Jersey, West Virginia, and Kansas. The next United States Senate, according to a strict party classification, will probably stand, 41 Republicans, 41 Democrats, and 6 Populists. Of the six Populists three, Messrs. Peffer of Kansas, Allen of Nebraska, and Kyle of South Dakota, are staunch members of the People's Party without other political affiliations; two senators, Jones and Stewart of Nevada, have strong Republican leanings, and one, Governor Tillman of South Carolina, should he be elected as predicted, is counted a Populist-Democrat. Thus the Populists will hold the balance of power in the United States Senate for the two years between March 4, 1895, and March 4, 1897.

THE NEXT HOUSE OF REPRESENTATIVES.

In the present House of Representatives there are 125 Republicans, 219 Democrats, and 12 Populists, the Democrats having a majority of 82 over all. The next Congress will probably have 240 Republicans, 102 Democrats, and 14 Populists or Fusionists, in which case there will be a Republican majority of 124 over all. This majority based on the returns as reported may be increased somewhat by the result of a few contested elections. It is certain that the Republicans will have a two thirds majority by states in the 54th Congress, which will be a matter of large importance should the next presidential election be thrown in the House of Representatives. By this election the proportions of the last Congress elected have been about reversed. It will be seen that there will be fewer Democrats in the next Congress than there are Republicans in the present House. This fact is made apparent by an analysis of the returns. But one Democrat is elected in the six New England states which in 1892 returned nine Democrats to the lower house. New York City elected four Democrats to Congress this year, the only ones in the state which two years ago elected nineteen Democratic congressmen. In place of a Pennsylvania delegation of ten Democrats in 1892, but one was elected this year in the state. Of a total of twenty-two congressmen elected in Ohio two are Democrats where there were seven elected two years ago. Indiana, Michigan, Wisconsin, Iowa, Delaware, Idaho, the two Dakotas, Montana, Wyoming, and Washington send solid Republican delegations to Congress. The same states in 1892 were represented by 30 Republicans and 25 Democrats. In Missouri 10 Republicans are elected in place of one at the congressional election two years ago. Other states in the South return Republicans as follows: Kentucky, 2; West Virginia, 4; and Maryland, 3. In 1892 the delegations elected from West Virginia and Maryland were entirely Democratic and that of Kentucky was made up of 1 Republican and 10 Democrats. Among the prominent Democrats in the present house who failed of re-election are William L. Wilson of West Virginia, author of the Wilson Bill and Chairman of the Ways and Means Committee, and Messrs. Hatch, Bland, and Dockery of Missouri, Springer of Illinois, Holman and Bynum of Indiana, Enloe of Tennessee, Outhwaite and Johnson of Ohio, and Cummings and Sickles of New York.

THE STATE ELECTIONS.

New Hampshire: The Republicans elected their candidates for governor and all other state offices. Mr. Charles A. Busiel is the governor elect. The Republicans also secured an increased majority in the Legislature which will elect a successor to United States Senator William E. Chandler, Republican.

Massachusetts: F. T. Greenhalge, the present governor, was re-elected together with the entire state ticket by more than 60,000 plurality. The net

Democratic loss this year is about twenty-four per cent and Governor Greenhalge's plurality is almost doubled over that of 1893. The Legislature, which is largely Republican, will elect a successor to United States Senator George F. Hoar.

Connecticut: The entire Republican state ticket was elected by about 17,000 plurality. O. Vincent Coffin is the governor-elect. It is the first time in about fifteen years that a Republican governor has

been elected by the people. The Legislature will stand: Senate, Republicans 21, Democrats 1; House, Republicans 205, Democrats 47.

New York: The Republicans elected their whole state ticket, and 106 out of 128 members of the lower branch of the state Legislature. The successful Republican candidates and their pluralities are as follows: Governor, ex-Vice President Levi P. Morton, 156,781; Lieut. Governor Charles T. Saxton, 125,825; Judge Court of Appeals Albert Haight, 126,515. At the preceding state election in 1891 Roswell P. Flower, Democrat, was elected governor by a plurality of 47,937. The defeated Democratic candidates were for governor, United States Senator David B. Hill; lieut. governor, Congressman Daniel S. Lockwood; judge of the court of appeals, Charles F. Brown. The Republicans will have a majority in the state Senate of 6 and 84 in the lower house. All of the 33 amendments to the state constitution proposed by the Constitutional Convention, enumerated in THE CHAUTAUQUAN for November, were favorably voted upon by the people. The anti-gambling amendment was one of the most important and by its passage pool selling and race track gambling is prohibited by the constitution, a result which will, it is said, put an end to the business of horse racing in the state.

New Jersey: The Republicans elected 5 out of the 6 state senators voted for and 56 out of the 60 members of the Lower House of the Legislature. No state officers were voted for. The next Legislature will be composed of 56 Republicans and 4 Democrats in the Lower House and 16 Republicans and 5 Democrats in the Senate, giving the Republicans a majority of 63 on joint ballot. This Republican Legislature will elect a United States senator to succeed John R. McPherson, Democrat, the present U. S. senator from New Jersey.

Pennsylvania: The entire Republican state ticket, led by General Daniel H. Hastings for governor, and including the venerable Galusha A. Grow, candidate for congressman at large, was elected by largely increased pluralities, that of General Hastings, who led the ticket by several thousand votes, being more than 243,000 over his Democratic opponent, Mr. W. H. Singler, editor of the *Record*, Philadelphia. The Republicans gain several seats in the Legislature, the new state Senate standing 43 Republicans and 7 Democrats, and the lower house having 176 Republicans and 28 Democrats.

Delaware? The Republican candidate for governor, Joshua A. Marvil, was elected by a plurality in excess of 1,000. The present governor is a Democrat. The next state Legislature will stand, House, 21 Republicans and 7 Democrats; Senate, 5 Democrats, and 4 Republicans, a Republican majority on joint ballot of 13. Thus a Republican

Legislature will elect a U. S. senator to succeed Anthony Higgins, Republican, the present senator from Delaware.

Ohio: The Republican state ticket comprising candidates for minor state offices, was elected by a plurality in excess of 138,000, the largest plurality ever given to Republican candidates in the state.

Michigan: The Republican candidates for governor and other state offices were elected by greatly increased pluralities. The present governor, John T. Rich, was re-elected. The next state Legislature will be composed almost if not entirely of Republicans and will elect two U. S. senators to succeed the present Republican senators.

West Virginia: The state went Republican by popular vote for the first time in twenty-one years. The Republicans have a majority in the Legislature which will elect a successor to U. S. Senator Camden, Democrat.

North Carolina: The state and judicial ticket of the Republican-Democratic fusion was elected. The Democrats lost control of the Legislature. The Republicans and Populists having elected Fusion candidates in many counties will have a majority on joint ballot in the Legislature and elect two United States senators to succeed Ransom, Democrat, and Jarvis, Democrat, who was appointed to fill the vacancy caused by the death of Senator Vance, Democrat.

South Carolina: The entire Democratic state ticket, headed by John Gary Evans, the candidate for governor, was elected by an overwhelming plurality. Evans' majority over Pope, the Independent candidate for governor, was about 20,000. He is the author of the "State Dispensary Law" and one of the youngest men ever elected governor of an American state, being but thirty years old. A constitutional convention was decided upon by a small majority. The Legislature, which is largely Democratic, will elect a United States senator to succeed Senator Butler, Democrat.

Texas: The Democratic state ticket, headed by Charles A. Culbertson, the candidate for governor, was elected. The Populists polled a heavy vote throughout the state.

Tennessee: The Republican candidate for governor, H. Clay Evans, was elected by a small plurality. This is the first time Tennessee has elected a Republican governor since the days of the reconstruction. The next state Legislature will be Democratic and will elect a United States senator to succeed Senator Harris, Democrat.

Missouri: The Republican candidates for minor state offices, including a judge of the Supreme Court, were elected by small pluralities. In 1892 a complete state ticket was elected and the Democratic candidate for governor, whose term does not expire until 1897, was given a plurality of 29,663.

The Republicans will have a majority in the state Legislature.

Indiana: The election was for minor state offices and members of the Legislature. The Republican state ticket was elected by a plurality of about 40,000, and the Republicans will have a majority in both branches of the next Legislature.

Illinois: The election was for minor state offices and members of the Legislature. The entire Republican state ticket was elected. The Republicans will have a majority in both branches of the Legislature, which will elect a successor to U. S. Senator Collum, Republican.

Iowa: The Republican ticket for minor state offices was elected by 70,000 plurality, which is said to be one of the largest pluralities ever given in the state.

Wisconsin: The Republican candidate for governor, Major J. G. Cleghorn, and the whole Republican state ticket was elected. The present governor is a Democrat. The state Legislature will be strongly Republican.

Minnesota: The Republican nominee for governor, Kuute Nelson, the present incumbent, and the remainder of the Republican state ticket were elected by pluralities of about 50,000. The Legislature will be largely Republican and will elect a successor to United States Senator William D. Washburn, Republican.

Kansas: The Republican candidate for governor, E. N. Morrill, was elected, receiving a plurality of about 10,000 over Governor L. D. Lewelling, Populist, who was a candidate for re-election. The balance of the Republican state ticket was also elected. In 1892 Lewelling's plurality over all candidates was 5,432. The Republicans will have a majority in the state Legislature, which will elect a United States senator to succeed Senator Martin, Democrat. The equal suffrage amendment to the constitution was defeated.

Nebraska: The Republican state ticket was elected with the exception of the candidate for governor, who was defeated by the Populist-Democratic fusion nominee, Silas A. Holcomb, who has always been a Democrat. The Republicans will have a majority in the next Legislature, which will elect a U. S. senator to succeed Senator Mandersohn, Republican.

South Dakota: The Republican state ticket, including Governor C. H. Sheldon, who was a candidate for re-election, was elected and the Republicans will have about a two thirds majority in the Legislature which is to elect a successor to U. S. Senator Pettigrew, Republican.

North Dakota: The Republican state ticket, including the candidate for governor, Roger Allin, was elected by a plurality in excess of 10,000. The present Populist governor and other state officers

were elected in 1892 on a Populist-Democratic fusion ticket. The Republicans will have a majority in the next state Legislature.

Colorado: The Populist governor, D. H. Waite, elected in 1892 by a plurality of 6,816, was defeated for re-election by the Republican candidate, Albert W. McIntire, by about 20,000 votes. The balance of the Republican state ticket was elected including the candidate for superintendent of public instruction, the candidates for this office on both tickets being women. The Republicans have a majority of 17 on joint ballot in the next Legislature and will elect a successor to U. S. Senator Wolcott, Republican. It was the first election in Colorado in which women exercised the right of equal suffrage. About 75,000 women voted in the state and in the city of Denver their vote amounted to 55 per cent of the total vote cast. Mrs. Angenette J. Peavey is the successful candidate for superintendent of public instruction, and three women, Mrs. Clara Cressingham, Mrs. Frances Klock, and Mrs. Carrie Clyde Holly, all Republicans, were elected members of the state Legislature. The activity of the women of all parties was one of the notable features of both the campaign and election.

Montana: The election was for minor state officers, members of the Legislature, and the location of the state capital, the competing places being Anaconda and Helena. The Republicans elected their state ticket and will have a majority on joint ballot in the Legislature, which will elect two United States senators. Helena is elected to be the state capital.

Wyoming: William A. Richards, the Republican candidate for governor and the balance of the Republican state ticket, was elected by about 1,500 plurality. The present governor, John E. Osborn, was elected on a Democratic and Populist fusion ticket in 1892 by a plurality of 1,691. The Republicans will have a majority in the next Legislature, which will elect two U. S. senators.

Idaho: The entire Republican state ticket headed by W. J. McConnell, the present governor, was elected by increased pluralities over the state election of 1892. The Legislature will have a Republican majority in both houses and elect a U. S. senator to succeed Senator Shoup, Republican.

California: The entire Republican state ticket was elected with the exception of M. M. Estee, the candidate for governor, who was defeated by James H. Budd, the Democratic candidate, by a small plurality. The Republicans will have a majority in the Legislature, which will elect a successor to U. S. Senator Perkins, Republican. The election of a Democratic governor, is a loss for the Republicans, the present governor H. H. Markham, being a Republican, whose plurality in 1890 was 7,945 over the Democratic candidate.

Washington: The election was for two judges of the Supreme Court and members of the Legislature. The Republican state ticket was elected and the Republicans will have a majority in the Legislature, which will elect a United States senator.

(Dem.) *The Sun.* (New York, N. Y.)

The defeat in New York was not the defeat of Hill personally. It was the defeat of the Democratic party; and in its magnitude it was not proportionately greater than in other states. It was a tidal wave against the Democracy, swelled by indignation caused by the betrayal of the party under the leadership of Cleveland.

Dearer than ever is David B. Hill to the unterrified, weariless, indomitable Democracy of New York. He has made the greatest political fight witnessed in this land since Andrew Jackson encountered and defeated the United States Bank and the money power more than half a century ago. He has made it disinterestedly, heroically, uncompromisingly. He has proved himself the bravest, ablest, and steadiest champion of Democratic ideas and policies. He has established himself as the true chief of the National Democratic party.

(Rep.) *Pittsburg Commercial Gazette.* (Pa.)

This is the elimination of David B. Hill from state and national politics. The same castigation should be administered to similar offenders in both parties. The people of this country when aroused sweep with the mighty besom of the ballot such men off the face of the political earth. His career was that of an indefatigable organizer, but seeking only for such principles to avow and espouse as the passing fantasies of the people seemed to favor, and departing from stubborn adherence to principles that abide forever, uncrushable by temporary defeats.

(Dem.) *Philadelphia Record.* (Pa.)

To some extent Democratic disasters are the direct outcome of Democratic dissensions and mistakes. President Cleveland has developed a wonderful incapacity for successful leadership, and he has not lacked able assistance in the Senate and House. The disastrous overturn in New York state is a result of blundering at Washington and plundering in New York City. No party and no leadership could stand up under such a double load.

(Pro.) *The Voice.* (New York, N. Y.)

The returns of the Prohibition vote indicate good gains in most of the western and southern states, but a falling off in New York and New England. . . . The moral of the whole affair is this: Whichever old party the country has in power, it wishes it had the other.

(Rep.) *Chicago Tribune.* (Ill.)

The American manufacturers and merchants and business men generally will draw a long breath of

relief. They are safe from molestation during the next Congress. They can go on with their business without fear of destructive tariff changes in the near future. They will feel that they do not have to wade through two more years of strikes and every other form of industrial discontent. And seeing that the workmen are alive to their real interests this year the business men have reason to hope that those workmen will show equal good sense two years hence.

(Dem.) *Baltimore Sun.* (Rep.)

The disaster that overtook the Democratic party yesterday was not unexpected. In its general aspects it was the logical result of the infidelity of the Democratic Senate to the solemn pledges of the party. The people in a case like this cannot or will not discriminate between the innocent and the guilty. They judge a party by its record and do not accept any plea of good intentions. Moreover, though the mills of the gods grind slowly, the mills of popular wrath and indignation grind exceedingly fast. The people strike hard and quickly when they are aroused, and nothing so strongly moves them as a palpable evasion or defiance of their will.

(Dem.) *The Commercial-Appeal.* (Memphis, Tenn.)

Unquestionably the Democratic party has failed, in important particulars, to meet the wishes of the people. But the people have not gone to the Republican party to get what the Democratic party has failed to give. They have not changed in their feelings or their opinions since 1892. The Democratic party is the victim of the savage spirit of the unrest of which Populism, Coxeyism and Debsism are symptoms. The blind anger of a people, restless under wrong, has simply struck at the party in power.

(Ind.) *Indianapolis News.* (Ind.)

Altgeld will soon be the only one of the crank governors left in power. Penoyer, of Oregon, was defeated some months ago. Waite, of Colorado, and Lewelling, of Kansas, will be succeeded presently by Republicans. Hogg, of Texas, will give way to Culbertson, and Tillman, of South Carolina, will doubtless go to the Senate. It will be a long time, we hope, before another such a collection of curio governors is seen.

(Rep.) *Denver Republican.* (Col.)

In Colorado equal suffrage has been justified by the way in which the women voted. This is shown both by the fact that they all voted and that a great majority of them cast their ballots against Waiteism and in favor of good government. The men of Colorado are proud of the way the women of the state joined in saving it from Populist misrule. The women of this state have given the most convincing evidence of the wisdom of equal suffrage, and they have strengthened that cause in every state in the Union.

(Pop.) *Rocky Mountain News.* (Denver, Col.)

The election in Colorado was measurably a fair one barring the indefensible efforts made before election by many employers to force those they employed to support the Republican ticket. What are the causes of the defeat? The Republicans were organized and aroused and supplied with money, as they have never been before. In Denver their course amounted to a crusade ostensibly in defense of home and business. Another element in the contest was no less effective. Never before in Colorado have the large employers of labor shown themselves so united and determined to defeat the ticket of any party. They claimed that the overthrow of the Populists was a prime necessity for the maintenance of fair control over their own affairs and business. The newly enfranchised women voters could not escape the contagion of the feverish fear entertained by their fathers, husbands and brothers. They made able lieutenants, indeed, and led in the work of organization and inspiration. Unquestionably the A. P. A.'s were a potent factor. Every lodge room became a Republican headquarters, every member a committeeman. The Populist party, if it but heeds the lesson of defeat, will suffer nothing by it; on the contrary, learning wisdom from its mistakes, it will avoid them in the future, and go before the people with truly representative candidates and fight the battle for the wise and patriotic principles upon which the party is founded.

(Rep.) *Kansas City Journal.* (Mo.)

The overturn in Missouri and in Kansas in the election of Tuesday brings the two states into political sympathy for the first time in twenty-four years. It will do both a great good, and we hope that in both the memories of other years will only heighten by contrast the benefits of the new peace that has come to each.

(Dem.) *Boston Post.* (Mass.)

For the first time in more than twenty years, there were no federal supervisors or United States marshals at the polls anywhere in this broad land when members of Congress were elected last week. The fact that this election was absolutely free from control and interference except by that of local authority is gradually coming to be understood. Nobody thought of it at the time. Nobody saw any neglect of protection for the voters or of connivance with fraud. It was a free election. This was the result of the repeal of the federal election laws by the Democratic Congress. It is a ludicrous commentary upon the forecasts of those who opposed the repeal, that the first election in which the federal power was forbidden to meddle should be that in which the party upholding federal interference won its astounding victory.

(Ind.) *New York Herald.* (N. Y.)

The Republicans will make a grave mistake if they assume that the vote was a vindication of protection and a mandate for its restoration. McKinleyism was stamped with sweeping condemnation by the people two years ago and they have not changed their opinion of it since. What they condemned on Tuesday was the inexcusable delay of the Democrats to revise the tariff and their failure to pass a satisfactory law in the end.

(Rep.) *New York Tribune.* (N. Y.)

The overthrow of the free-trade Democracy may have to be followed by a struggle, and if so by a victory, in the presidential election of 1896, before the evil work of the last year can be undone. But it brings at least this glad assurance, that the further progress toward free trade which the party has promised will not be made. One test of a Democratic tariff has been enough, and the people have made it clear that they will have no more.

THE DOWNFALL OF TAMMANY IN NEW YORK CITY.

THE election of municipal officers in New York City which took place November 6 was an event of the first importance in the history of municipal government in the United States. The municipal reform movement inaugurated by the Rev. Dr. C. H. Parkhurst and supplemented by the investigation carried on by the Lexow committee had for its logical outcome the nomination of a city ticket opposed to that of the Democratic city organization, Tammany Hall. The anti-Tammany ticket was endorsed and supported by the Republicans, a number of anti-Tammany Democratic societies, the Good Government Clubs, the German-American Reform Union, and the Committee of Seventy, a non-partisan organization formed for the purpose of defeating the Tammany candidates. The anti-Tammany ticket was headed by Col. Wm. L. Strong, a prominent business man and a Republican, for mayor; and John W. Goff, chief counsel of the Lexow committee and a Democrat, for recorder. Ex-Mayor Hugh J. Grant led the Tammany ticket as its candidate for mayor, and Frederick Smyth was the nominee for recorder, of which office he is the present incumbent. The two candidates for president of the Board of Aldermen were Jeroloman, an anti-Tammany Democrat, and Peters, Tammany. Thirty candidates were supported also by each of the contending parties for aldermen. The result of the election was a complete victory for the anti-Tammany ticket, its candidates being elected by the following pluralities: Strong, mayor, 43,624; Goff, recorder, 53,080; Jeroloman, president Board of Aldermen, 39,690. The extent of this defeat for

Tammany is evidenced by a comparison with the vote of 1892 when Gilroy the present (Tammany) mayor of New York was elected by a plurality of 75,587. Of the thirty members of the Board of Aldermen elected, thirteen are Tammany Democrats and seventeen are Republicans elected on the anti-Tammany ticket. Thus the Republicans will have a majority in the Board of Aldermen for the first time since 1871. The present board is entirely Democratic.

THE GREATER NEW YORK AND RAPID TRANSIT.

OTHER features of the election in New York City, but not directly Tammany or anti-Tammany issues, were the questions of the Greater New York and Rapid Transit. The proposition to extend the limits of the city of New York to include Brooklyn and much other adjacent territory was favorably voted upon, the combined returns from the territory interested giving a substantial majority for the Greater New York. The vote of the people on this question was mainly advisory and the matter has now to be taken up by the state Legislature for further action. The proposed greater New York covers an area of 317.77 square miles, while the present New York has only 38.85 square miles. New York is now the third largest city in the world but the Greater New York would have a population of more than 3,000,000, making it second only to London, the largest city in the world. By a vote of 105,221 to 36,431 the people of New York also declared in favor of the municipal construction of a Rapid Transit system. This action empowers the Rapid Transit Commission of the city to enter into a contract for the construction of an underground railroad. It is clothed also with the power to incur a debt of \$50,000,000 in the pursuit of its work and as much more as may from time to time be authorized by the Legislature of the state. The person (or corporation) who secures the contract for the construction of the road must also contract to operate it for a period of from thirty-five to fifty years. The indebtedness incurred by the city for construction will be met by the issue of bonds. The builders and operators of the road must pay for their privilege an annual rental sufficient to defray the interest on this bond issue with one per cent additional which will form a sinking fund for the redemption of the bonds at maturity. The rate of fare, the law provides, is to be fixed by the Board of Commissioners.

(Ind.) *New York Herald.* (N. Y.)

The system of public plunder and private persecution that has come to be known as Tammanyism has been emphatically condemned. The center of activity now shifts from the mass of the citizens of New York to the executive officials to whom, by their votes last Tuesday, they have intrusted the government of the city. The people have done their part. It is now their turn to point to the evil of Tammanyism and say to the newly-elected officers, "What are you going to do about it?"

(Rep.) *The Morning Advertiser.* (New York, N. Y.)

Dr. Parkhurst proved to be the John the Baptist of the Lexow committee and the political revolution that has followed its revelations. To this brave man more than to any other citizen, we owe the overthrow of the infamous Tammany ring.

(Dem.) *The Sun.* (New York, N. Y.)

We have just closed a campaign in which many of the clergy and great numbers of good people, men and women, have been engaged because of the horror excited in them by the exposure of the practical working of this widespread system. Now that that particular campaign is over, why should not these moral reformers proceed with their movement? They have not reached the seat of the disease, but have only dealt with some of the symptoms. That seat is not in Tammany Hall, but in the low moral tone of the society where many conspicuous church members and men looked up to as examples for truth and righteousness, have not hesitated to pay bribes, and to make themselves confederates of the

police in spreading such corruption and social demoralization. Let the ministers preach sermons on the text of the mote and the beam as appropriate to the immediate situation.

(Socialist.) *Volks Zeitung.* (New York, N. Y.)

The city of New York is freed from the Tammany corruptionists, for the Capitalistic-Republican Boodler Strong has been elected, and with him the rest of the office-hungry rabble of pseudo-reformers. The people have thrown out the Democratic robbers and swindlers to put Republican ones in their places.

(Dem.) *The Mercury.* (New York, N. Y.)

The fact is that it was not so much Tammany that beat the Democratic ticket in this city as it was malicious lying about Tammany. The Tammany Society is nearly as old as the Republic, about as old as the Society of the Cincinnati. We rather think it will live for some time yet.

(Rep.) *New York Press.* (N. Y.)

The people have given by an emphatic majority their opinion of Sheehan and his Tammany associates. These have not the slightest claim upon official toleration or popular sympathy, and should be held to the strictest account for any unlawful act.

(Dem.) *New York World.* (N. Y.)

To Dr. Charles H. Parkhurst more than to any other man belongs the credit of the defeat of the Tammany ring and the promise of purification of the city government. Tammany undertook to prove that New York is only fit for its corruption. It has failed. New York is redeemed from the thralldom of crime and the rule of criminals.

FIRST TRIAL OF UNIVERSAL SUFFRAGE IN BELGIUM.

THE first trial of universal suffrage in Belgium took place at the elections held Sunday, October 14. Prior to the revision of the constitution providing for universal suffrage the electorate was limited to about 130,000. At the recent election under the revised constitution the number of qualified voters was increased to 1,370,000, and an additional provision for plural voting made the total possible vote in the neighborhood of 2,000,000. The enactment of this constitutional provision came about through the demands of the advanced Liberals and Socialists to which the Clerical or Catholic party assented. The distribution of seats in the new Chamber of Deputies according to the result of the election as given in the press dispatches from Brussels is 104 Catholics, 29 Socialists, and 19 Liberals.

The Nation. (New York, N. Y.)

This was the election for the lower house. The Senate is elected by the same electors if over thirty years of age. The one-voters are men over twenty-five, who have lived a year in the district. The two-voters are married men and widowers paying a small tax. The three-voters are the educated class, including the priests. Voting is compulsory. The result is extremely interesting, because this is the first time that it has been possible to ascertain, with any degree of accuracy, the manner in which the Belgian population is divided among the various political parties. The three great divisions are the Liberals, the Socialists, and the Clericals or Catholics. The three-voters, who are mainly clerical, are more numerous in the country districts. The one-voters are more numerous in the towns, a circumstance which keeps up the

power of the country as against the town.

The Sun. (New York, N. Y.)

Plural voting is a novelty. In Belgium alone it is deliberately sanctioned and applied on a great scale; it is, of course, practiced in Great Britain, but only in a small way, and it is there regarded by all parties as an anomaly that requires correction. From an historical point of view, it cannot even be said that compulsory voting is altogether new, seeing that in the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries certain English boroughs, having sought to avoid the cost and trouble of returning members to Parliament, were compelled by the royal authority to exercise their unwelcome powers. There is no doubt, however, that the provision of the Belgian Constitution making voting compulsory represents a noteworthy change in the view taken of the suffrage during the present century.

INVESTIGATION OF THE LEXOW COMMITTEE IN NEW YORK.

THE Lexow committee, representing the Senate of the state of New York, closed temporarily its investigation of the New York Police Department Nov. 5. Its sessions will be resumed about December 1. At no time during the sittings of the committee since the beginning of the undertaking last spring has the testimony called forth been more appalling or disheartening to citizens who believe in honest government than during the few weeks prior to the adjournment. The two most important witnesses examined by the committee during this period were Police Commissioner John C. Sheehan of the city of New York and one Mrs. Herreman. The comments of the press appended deal chiefly with the testimony of these witnesses.

The Evening Post. (New York, N. Y.)

Nothing that Mr. Goff has hitherto provided for the entertainment of the public has equaled the story told, or half told, by the women Herreman. It had all the marks of truth, was coherent, probable, and capable of corroboration.

New York Tribune. (N. Y.)

Sheehan came to this city several years ago under the cloud of charges affecting his personal honesty. He has become rich. The strokes of honest labor by which this man increased his wealth could very likely be counted on the fingers of one hand. Coming here as a discovered defaulter, and amassing wealth as he has from official positions which could not in any legitimate way have yielded it, it was the most natural and logical thing in the course of such an investigation of municipal corruption as the one now in progress that he should be called upon to produce his books and disclose the sources of his wealth. This he has refused to do.

Refused not with the manner of an innocent man or any pretense of explanation; but with the swagger of a blackguard who feels secure and can laugh at law and justice.

(Evan.) *The Outlook.* (New York, N. Y.)

The last week's testimony before the Lexow committee added appreciably to the amazing mass of proof as to the corruption in every branch of the Police Department. Commissioner Sheehan declined absolutely to show the committee his bank books, returned evasive answers to many questions, grossly insulted the committee's counsel from time to time, made nothing like a sound defense against the charge that he left Buffalo as a defaulter, and in short, left a wretched impression of his character both as an official and as a man. The woman whom the agents of accused police captains tried to detain in Jersey City was brought to New York and put upon the stand. In part her testimony was like much that had already been heard from keepers of

infamous resorts who have paid blackmail to the police. But it was startling in that Mrs. Herreman testified that she had paid in all from \$25,000 to \$30,000 to the police for "protection" and to free herself from arrest and prosecution. Nothing more atrocious has been told to the committee than this woman's story of the systematic thwarting by the

police of her attempts to keep her own niece from entering into an evil life.

The horrible charge was made, and (in part at least) sustained by the evidence of checks, that the police have systematically blackmailed and "protected" professional abortionists. Is there any possible lower depth than this?

WITHOUT A PASTOR AND WITHOUT A CHURCH.

THE REV. DR. T. DE WITT TALMAGE resigned the pastorate of the Brooklyn Tabernacle, Brooklyn, N. Y., on November 7. Three great church buildings erected by Dr. Talmage's congregation during his pastorate were destroyed by fire, the last one a short time ago, and the announcement is made that the Board of Trustees have decided not to build a new church. Dr. Talmage's congregation is therefore without a pastor and without a church.

Dr. Talmage's Resignation.

To the Session of the Brooklyn Tabernacle:

DEAR BRETHREN: I hereby ask you to join with me in a request to the Brooklyn Presbytery that they dissolve the pastoral relation now existing. The congregation of the Brooklyn Tabernacle have built during my pastorate three great churches, which have been destroyed. It is not right that I should call upon them to build a fourth during my ministry.

I advise that you do one of two things—either call a new pastor, under whose leadership a new church might be built, or that you remain in organization until you can give certificates of membership to our people so that they may, in usual form, join sister churches.

As for myself, I will, as Providence may direct, either take another pastorate or go into general evangelistic work, preaching the Gospel without money and without price.

Thanking you for your ever-increasing kindness to me and mine, and hoping to be associated with

you in the heavenly world, together with the multitudes with whom we have worshipped during the last twenty-five years, I am yours in the Gospel,

T. DE WITT TALMAGE.

The Resignation Accepted.

To the Brooklyn Presbytery:

DEAR BRETHREN: At the request of our pastor we hereby ask you to dissolve the pastoral relation now existing between the Rev. T. De Witt Talmage, D. D., and the Brooklyn Tabernacle. Commissioners fully authorized will represent us at your next meeting. It is with unfeigned sorrow that we comply with our pastor's request, recognizing Dr. Talmage's faithfulness in preaching an unmixed Gospel, pure evangelism, repentance for sin, and faith in our Lord Jesus Christ, the trumpet giving no uncertain sound. Expending nothing on the mere technicalities of religion, he had given his energies to the preaching of the broad mercy and practical comfort of the Gospel. Very respectfully,

EDWARD H. BRANCH,
Moderator of Sessions.

GENERAL BOOTH IN THE UNITED STATES

GENERAL WILLIAM BOOTH, of London, England, commander of the Salvation Army, whose visit to the United States was noted in these columns last month, began a tour of American cities in October which will take him to all the important centers of the Army's work in this country. In New York he received a hearty welcome, large audiences representative in character greeted him, men prominent in the affairs of church and state made public speeches in honor of his visit and spoke with one accord in high praise of the work of the Army, and an address was read to General Booth representing, it is said, four fifths of the Protestant clergymen of the city. Both in New York, Pittsburg, and the other cities already visited, the treatment of the founder of the Salvation Army has been most cordial, a fact which is to be taken as an indication of the appreciation which Americans have for his labors and the work of the organization of which he is the head.

The Sun. (New York, N. Y.)

General Booth's plan of moral regeneration is to make better the mass of society by making better the individuals composing it. The Salvation Army is following the old-fashioned Christian theory that the wickedness of society can be prevented only by turning the hearts of men from evil to good; and whatever may be the occasion for criticism of the peculiar methods used by General Booth's follow-

ers in their pursuit of that purpose, it cannot be denied that they stick to it with firm and unswerving faith.

Chicago Inter-Ocean. (Ill.)

The visit of General William Booth to this country is an event of greater interest to more people than would be the visit of any other religious leader in Europe. General Booth is the founder and the head of the Salvation Army, which was at first re-

garded by many people as a travesty on religious organization, but he has lived to see it one of the greatest powers for Christian work in Europe and America, with its influence rapidly extending to all parts of the world.

It has even become the model in many things for Christian work by other agencies, and is to-day recognized as the work best calculated to re-

deem the plague spots of all great cities where churches were unable to live or be of service to the cause of either religion or humanity. General Booth is now on a sort of general tour of inspection, and as he goes from one country to another to inspect the grand divisions of his army he is in all probability looked to as leader by more people than look to any other one man living.

THE BUSINESS OUTLOOK.

ONE effect of the recent election has been to relieve the discussion and estimate of the business situation of its intense partisan character and there is manifested a general disposition, prompted by the highest patriotism, to urge on the improvement, however slight, which has gradually taken place in the natural course of trade. Business failures during the month of October were less frequent and much smaller than during the same month of last year, which is in itself a favorable indication. Trade continues on the same conservative lines which have marked its course within the last few months, and while there appears to be no widespread business revival it is quite generally conceded that the conditions and outlook are better than during the corresponding period in 1893 although not up to the normal level of 1892.

Chicago Evening Post. (Ill.)

The country has an assurance of at least two years of freedom from injuriously disturbing congressional legislation—that is to say, legislation that will stick. To that extent therefore the business interests of the country can plan with confidence on a season of smooth sailing. Nothing can occur likely to unsettle financial, commercial or industrial affairs. The times should therefore continue to mend rapidly. Increasing industrial activity is probable. That was a certainty, regardless of the result of the election. The prospect of a season of quiet is encouraging capital to reach out with greater confidence. The wholesale and retail trade in the cities and towns is assuming satisfactory volume and advices from the interior reflect comfortable prosperity among the farming classes.

Kansas City Times. (Mo.)

As a matter of fact prosperity is returning, not with the velocity of a cyclone, but in safe and regular strides which manifestly means that it will get here and stay. There are various reasons for this, and they are clear and unmistakable. But the most potent and powerful of them all is that the new tariff law saves to the people of the country the enormous sum of \$200,000,000 a week, which is more than the total amount of the liabilities involved in the 358 business failures that occurred during the first week of November last year and the 261 which occurred during the week that ended November 8, this year.

American Wool and Cotton Reporter. (Boston, Mass.)

The sweeping result of Tuesday's elections does away with all fears of further reduction of the tariff, and will give to the business of the country a degree of stability which has been lacking. The trouble with many of the public men of both parties appears to be that their tariff views are so extreme that when once in control of the government, they

go further in the way of legislation in one direction or another than the people expected. With the control of the government now divided between the two parties until March 4, 1897, the business interests will be let alone until they can determine how far they may be able to adjust themselves to present conditions. The worst feature of the situation at the present time is the condition of the United States treasury, and the obstacles which exist to the maintenance of a sufficient gold reserve.

American Grocer. (New York, N. Y.)

As compared with last year's bad record, business shows a slight improvement, but when we go back to the prosperous period of 1892, it is nearly 25 per cent behind that time. It is not by examining market statistics, but rather through contact with manufacturers and jobbers, that we arrive at the conclusion that business is steadily but slowly increasing. There are gains all along through the list of manufacturers. Prices of great staples continue phenomenally low, the effect of which is to stimulate a search for methods of reducing the cost of production, both on the farm and in the factory. Reports from other cities are that business is steady in volume, except at Omaha, where larger sales are reported than for any month this year. St. Louis reports that grocery jobbers are pushed to fill orders. These are the exceptions to the general tenor of advices from other points.

Baltimore American. (Md.)

There is no doubt about the improvement of the business situation. The banks are letting out money more freely, the markets are stronger and there is a better confidence all along the line. Investments are increasing, and the inflow of foreign capital has begun. Politics have had their season, and now trade is dominating the thoughts of men. Let the good times come! Encourage them! Hasten them!

SUMMARY OF NEWS.

HOME.

October 10. The American Association of Bankers meets in Baltimore.—The Annual Conference of the Catholic Archbishops of the United States meets in Philadelphia, Cardinal Gibbons presiding.

October 11. The ninth Annual Conference of the Brotherhood of St. Andrew opens at Washington, D. C., with 1,200 delegates present; Louisville, Ky., selected as the place for the next annual meeting.

October 12. In the test case brought by the Louisiana Sugar Planters Judge McComas of the Supreme Court of the District of Columbia refuses to grant a mandamus authorizing the secretary of the treasury to pay the bounty for the sugar crop of 1894 as provided for by the McKinley tariff law.

October 17. The trial trip of the battle ship *Maine* is pronounced a success.

October 23. The Convention of the American Missionary Association opens at Lowell, Mass.—The General Conference of the Universalist Church opens at Baltimore, Md.

October 24. The National Switchmen's Union of North America is organized at Kansas City, Mo., to take the place of the Switchmen's Mutual Aid Society, which became disorganized during the recent railroad strikes in the West.

October 25. Great property interests sacrificed and a few lives lost by prairie fires which sweep over large portions of northwestern Nebraska.

October 26. First notice of the intention of Germany to prohibit the importation of cattle and fresh beef from the United States is given to Secretary Gresham by the German ambassador at Washington.

November 3. President Cleveland signs an order extending the classified system in the Civil Service.

November 7. The 75th Annual Conference of the Missionaries of the M. E. Church opens in Brooklyn, N. Y.

FOREIGN.

October 11. The Japanese capture Wi-Ju. China orders arms from German manufacturers.

October 14. Germany rejects England's proposal to join the Powers in intervention in the Chino-Japanese war.

October 15. The Legislative Assembly of New South Wales passes a resolution favoring the extension of franchise to women, the vote standing 58 to 13.

October 18. The Chinese fortify Wei-Hai-Wai.—The Berlin Municipal Council rejects a socialist proposal to establish an eight-hour working day for all workmen employed by the council by a vote of 94 to 18.

October 19. The Japanese Parliament convenes

in special session and is opened by the emperor. Bills for increasing the army and navy are introduced.

October 22. All the socialist workingmen's societies in Italy are dissolved by a government decree.

October 23. The special session of the Japanese Parliament is closed. It is declared that no interference in the war will be tolerated by Japan.

October 25. About 300 persons are killed and 3,000 houses destroyed by earthquakes in Japan.—In Germany Imperial Chancellor von Caprivi resigns his office and Count Zu Eulenberg resigns as president of the Prussian Council.

October 27. Prince von Hohenlohe-Schillingsfürst is appointed imperial chancellor of Germany and president of the Prussian Council, to succeed Caprivi and Zu Eulenberg, the two offices being consolidated.—A decree is promulgated in Hamburg prohibiting the importation of live cattle and fresh meat from the United States.

October 29. Prohibition against the landing of American cattle and dressed meat is extended to every port in Germany.

October 31. The Chinese emperor summons his viceroys to Peking to discuss the war with Japan.

November 4. The Japanese win several victories taking Andong and Fong-Wong; the Chinese retreat without fighting.

November 7. Germany agrees to refer the prohibition against the importation of American cattle to the opinion of experts.

November 9. The Japanese attack Port Arthur by sea and land, the Chinese fleet being confined to the harbor.

November 10. Diplomatic relations are suspended between France and Madagascar.

NECROLOGY.

October 13. Charles F. E. Mingieod, a Virginia clergyman, famous as a counselor of Jefferson Davis and General Lee during the war.

October 18. Sir Alfred Stephen, for thirty years chief justice of New South Wales. Born 1822.

October 19. Samuel Booth, ex-mayor and postmaster of Brooklyn, N. Y. Born 1818.—James Darmestetter, a well-known Orientalist, professor of the Persian language and literature in the College de France, Paris. Born 1849.

October 21. John D. Beedle, ex-governor of New Jersey. Born 1831.

October 30. Honore Mercier, ex-premier of the Province of Quebec. Born 1840.

October 31. Charles T. Cowden, one of the cavalrymen who captured Jefferson Davis in 1865.

November 6. Philip Gilbert Hamerton, the eminent English poet, author, and artist. Born 1834.

C. L. S. C. OUTLINE AND PROGRAMS.

FOR DECEMBER.

First week (ending December 8).

"The Growth of the English Nation." Chapter VI.
from page 123 to page 130.

"Europe in the Nineteenth Century." Chapters
XXI. and XXII.

IN THE CHAUTAUQUAN:

"The Painter's Art in England."

"Social Life in England in the Nineteenth Century."

Second week (ending December 15).

"The Growth of the English Nation." Chapter VI.
concluded.

"Europe in the Nineteenth Century." Chapters
XXIII., XXIV., and XXV.

IN THE CHAUTAUQUAN:

"The French Chambers."

"The Question of Madagascar."

Third week (ending December 22).

"The Growth of the English Nation." Chapter VII.
to page 156.

"Europe in the Nineteenth Century." Chapters
XXVI., XXVII., and XXVIII. to page 315.

IN THE CHAUTAUQUAN:

"The World's Debt to Astronomy."

"Some Contemporary English Novelists."

Fourth week (ending December 29).

"The Growth of the English Nation." Chapter VII.
concluded.

"Europe in the Nineteenth Century." Chapters
XXVIII. concluded, XXIX., and XXX.

IN THE CHAUTAUQUAN:

"Great Canals."

"A Visit to Prince Bismarck."

"A Christmas Meditation."

SUGGESTIVE PROGRAMS FOR LOCAL CIRCLE WORK.

FIRST WEEK.

1. Paper—Brief sketches of some of the prominent Irish patriots.
2. Table Talk—A study of English art. Make a collection of English pictures to add to those given in the present magazine; note the distinguishing characteristics of each artist, and express opinion regarding the works. It will not be difficult to find the pictures; a search through magazines will reveal many fine reproductions; and many late books contain pictures by these artists—"Trilby" for instance is illustrated by its author Mr. Du Maurier. In THE CHAUTAUQUAN for July, 1892, there are several pictures by Burne-Jones, and in August of the same year there is one by William Hamilton, "Rosalind and Orlando."

3. General discussion—Has England necessarily entered upon a period in which her trade and commerce must decrease and she must experience national decadence? (See statement made near close of the article on "Social Life in England in the Nineteenth Century" in this impression of THE CHAUTAUQUAN.)
4. Character study—Alexander III. of Russia.*
5. Table Talk—The relation of Russia to the other great nations of the world during the reign of the late czar, and the points in which that relation is likely to be changed under the new czar.

WICLIF DAY—DECEMBER 10.

"If we want truth every man ought to be free to say what he thinks without fear."—*Erasmus*.

1. Paper—The relation between England and the church of Rome in Wiclif's time.
2. A study—In what did Wiclif's heresy consist?
3. Table Talk—Wiclif's method of disseminating his doctrines. Other religious leaders and sects that have followed a similar plan.
4. Paper—Some famous followers of Wiclif, notably John Huss and Jerome of Prague.
5. A story retold or abridged—"A Story of the Lollards," written by the author of the "Schönberg-Cotta Family," and forming the last one of the sketches given in the volume "The Early Dawn."

THIRD WEEK.

1. Readings from Shakespeare. The conversations between King Henry IV. and Prince Henry, afterward Henry V. See I. Henry IV., Act. III., Scene II., Act V., Scene IV., and II. Henry IV., Act IV., Scene IV., beginning with King Henry's request, "I pray you take me up, and bear me hence into some other chamber." The wooing scene between Henry V. and Katharine, in Henry V., Act V., Scene II.
2. Two papers—Shakespeare's representation of Joan of Arc, in I. Henry VI., and of Jack Cade in II. Henry VI., beginning with Act IV., Scene II.
3. A map study of the Slavic countries.
4. Table Talk—Favorite English novelist, and why.
5. General discussion—Events leading up to the revolution in New York politics.

FOURTH WEEK.

1. Character study—Richard III. as presented by Shakespeare in III. King Henry VI. and Rich-

* See *Current History and Opinion* in this number of THE CHAUTAUQUAN, also the text-book, "Europe in the Nineteenth Century."

† See *Current History and Opinion*.

ard III. Several selections may be chosen for reading in character.

2. A reading—Washington Irving's "Mahomet," Chapter XXIV.
3. Table Talk—Great canals,—those already finished, those in process of construction, those abandoned, either temporarily or permanently, and those proposed. Make a map study of all and show the peculiar benefit to be derived from each.
4. *Questions and Answers*, or questions from *The Question Table* in the current number of *THE CHAUTAUQUAN*.
5. General discussion—Review the recent general elections and compare with those held in 1892.*

CHRISTMAS.

"Any man or woman . . . that can give any knowledge, or tell any tidings of an old, old, very old gray-bearded gentleman, called Christmas, who was wont to be a verie familiar ghest, and visite all sorts of people both pore and rich, and used to appeare in glittering gold, silk, and silver in the Court, and in all shapies in the theater in Whitehall, and had ringing feasts and jollitie in all places both in the cite and cuntries, for his coming: who-soever can tel what is become of him or where he may be found, let them bring him back againe to England."—*An Hue and Cry after Christmas*.

*See *Current History and Opinion*.

Circles wishing to commemorate Christmas will find a good suggestion for an entertainment in the preceding quotation. Let each one come as if in response to the call made, to tell something concerning the festal day. Its observance in "Old England," from the earliest times on down, its cheer, the charities connected with it, the music and musicians (waits), the feastings, games, the Abbots of Unreason or Lords of Misrule, etc., will form good topics. The leader of the circle might call the quotation after the manner of a town crier and those who are to take part rise as volunteers to give their part of the information; or the leader might call on various ones personally, asking if they could not give some account of the missing character. Fictitious names could be assumed by those thus called on. Christmas stories read or retold (care being taken in not making them too long), Christmas poems recited, traditions, family narratives, or personal experiences could all be made appropriate and timely. A Christmas banquet served as far as possible in the old English style would be a fine accompaniment to the festivities.

C. L. S. C. NOTES AND WORD STUDIES.

ON REQUIRED READINGS FOR DECEMBER.

"THE GROWTH OF THE ENGLISH NATION."

P. 123. "Pō-lēm'ic." A Greek derivative from the word for war. Controversy; the art or practice of disputation; especially that "branch of theology which is concerned with the history or conduct of ecclesiastical controversy."

"Hu'man-ism." A system of thought in which human interests prevail; literary culture. Specifically it was applied in the Middle Ages to the intelligent and appreciative study of Latin, Greek, and Hebrew.

P. 126. "Absolution." Remission of sin. "It is not a mere announcement of the Gospel, or a bare declaration that God will pardon the sins of those who repent, but, as the Council of Trent defines it, is a judicial act by which a priest as judge passes a sentence on the penitent."

P. 127. "Connoisseur" [kōn-nis-sûr]. A French word now become English, meaning a critical judge of any of the arts, especially of music, painting, or sculpture.

P. 129. "Palmer." Latin *palma*, a palm branch. The name given to a pilgrim who had returned from the Holy Land whither he had gone in fulfillment of a vow, and had brought back with him as evidence a palm branch which he deposited on the altar of his parish church; then it came to be applied to an itinerant monk who went from shrine to shrine, under a perpetual vow of poverty.

P. 130. "Ver-nac'u-lar." A similar Latin word means born in one's house, native; and this was derived from *verna*, the name of a slave born in his master's house. Hence the word means belonging to one's own country; native; used especially of language.

"Al-lit'er-a-tive." From the Latin word for letter. It means characterized by alliteration, which is the repetition of the same letter or sound at the beginning of words in close succession. The following selection from "Piers Plowman" is a good example of alliterative verse:

"Hire robe was full riche of red scarlet engreynd
With ribanes of red gold and of riche stones;
Hire array me ravysshed such riches saw I nevere."

Notice the alliteration on pages 128 and 129 of the text-book.

"Lol'lard." "A name given to several religious associations in the Middle Ages. Its etymology has been variously explained. Some suppose that it comes from the German, *tullen*, to hum, so that the term would signify persons speaking at religious services with a low suppressed voice; others consider it a term of reproach derived from the old English word *loller*, a vagabond; others derive it from Matthew Lollaert, a Dutch heretic who was put to death. The name first appears in the Netherlands about the year 1300. In England it was applied to the adherents of Wiclif as early as 1382,

and in 1387 and 1389 it was used in episcopal documents. It remained a common appellation of the adherents of Wiclif until the beginning of the reformation of the sixteenth century."

P. 131. "Friars." The word in this early modern English form, the old English being *frier*, is the same as *frère* in French, *frate*, or *fra*, in Italian, and *fruter* in Latin, all meaning brother or monk. It could be used in any religious order, but was especially applied to members of the mendicant orders, the Franciscans, Dominicans, etc.

"Præmunire" [prēm-u-nī're]. From a Latin word meaning to forewarn, to cite.

P. 132. "Mark." "An Anglo-Saxon and early English money of account. In the tenth century it was estimated at 100 silver pennies, but from the end of the twelfth century (or earlier) onward at 160 pennies, or 13s and 4d."

"The Babylonish captivity." Rome was in such a distracted state at this time that Pope Clement V. accepted the protection of the French king and moved the papal chair to Avignon [ä-vën-yôn]. His successors remained there for nearly seventy years, and on account of this length of time, closely corresponding to the stay of the children of Israel in Babylon, the period was popularly called the "Babylonish captivity."

"The Great Schism." On the death of Gregory XI., Urban VIII., an Italian, was elected pope by the cardinals. He immediately showed bitter animosity to the French, and the majority of the cardinals being French bitterly resented this treatment. They declared his election invalid and chose Clement VII., who became thus the first of the anti-popes. Both popes held their position, the one in Italy, the other in France. Under the same name also is known the event alluded to on page 247 of "Europe in the Nineteenth Century" and defined in the *C. L. S. C. Notes* on that book.

P. 134. "Transubstantiation" [tran-sub-stan-shi-a'shun]. A change of one substance into another. In theology, the change, held to occur during the consecration of the elements of the communion service, of the bread into the real body of Christ and of the wine into His blood.

P. 136. "*Sine quā nōn*." Latin. Literally, Without which not, that is,—an indispensable condition.

P. 140. "Cov'in." A secret agreement, collusion, a deceitful arrangement.

P. 160. "Tonsured." From a Latin word meaning to shear, to shave. Tonsure is defined as the act of clipping the hair or shaving the crown of the head. "In the Roman Catholic and Greek churches, this was the name of the ceremony of shaving the head, either wholly or partially, performed upon a candidate as a preparatory step to his entering the priesthood or embracing monastic life; hence entrance into the clerical state or a monastic order."

Hallam says, "No ecclesiastical privilege had occasioned such dispute, or proved so mischievous, as the immunity of all tonsured persons from civil punishment for crimes."

"Decimated." When a Roman cohort revolted, and the revolt was put down, a common punishment was to decimate the cohort—that is, select every tenth man, *decimus*, by lot, and put him to death. If a cohort suffered in battle so that about one man in ten was killed, it was consequently said to be decimated. Long custom seems to have sanctioned the use of this word to express a great but indefinite destruction. Dean Trench says, alluding to the fact that it has become a veritable case of conscience with some whether they ought to use words which originally rested upon some superstition or untruth, "We involve ourselves in no real contradiction in speaking of a population decimated by a plague, though exactly a tenth of it has not perished."

P. 164. "Seely." An obsolete word, meaning silly, harmless.

P. 165. "Mum'mers." Perhaps from a German word *mumme*, mask. Persons who mask themselves and make diversion in disguise, especially in England, companies of persons who go from house to house at Christmas, performing a kind of play.

"EUROPE IN THE NINETEENTH CENTURY."

P. 237. "Disestablishment." "The act of withdrawing a church from a privileged relation to the state."

P. 239. "Obstruction." When a bill is introduced into a legislative assembly which is looked upon by the minority as objectionable, and which would be passed as soon as presented, by the majority, a strong effort is often made to prevent its reaching a vote. The minority take up their course of obstruction. This consists in "numerous speeches, motions to adjourn, on which the yeas and nays are called, and an unlimited number of amendments, each of which can be discussed and voted upon as a distinct question. There is no termination to such proceedings except through the physical exhaustion of the contestants or concessions on the part of the majority."

P. 247. "Fetichism" [fē'tish-iz'm]. Also spelled fetishism. A fetish is any material object which is looked upon with awe as possessing mysterious powers, or as being the representative or habitation of a deity, to which worship may be paid and from whom supernatural help may come. A fetish may be an animal or an inanimate object. Such worship, called fetichism, belongs to a low form of religion. Sir J. Lubbock says it stands in much the same relation to religion that alchemy does to chemistry, or astrology to astronomy.

"The great schism." "The estrangement between the Greek and Latin churches, culminating

finally in the great schism, stands historically in close connection with the division of the Roman Empire into an Eastern and Western Empire. Before the ninth century there had been temporary suspensions of communion between the Roman church and the East. The immediate occasion of suspension of communion was the intrusion by the Greek emperor Michael III., in A.D. 857, of the learned Photius into the see of Constantinople instead of Ignatius, who, at that time patriarch, had just been deposed. The Roman See asserted jurisdiction in the matter as possessing supreme power, and mutual charges of false doctrine and excommunications followed; but Photius was finally acknowledged at Rome as patriarch. The final division was that between Pope Leo IX. and the patriarch Michael Cerularius, in A.D. 1054, since which time Roman Catholics regard the Greeks or Easterns as cut off from the Catholic church; the Greeks on the other hand, claim that they have remained faithful to the Catholic creed and ancient usages."

P. 250. "Vodka." A Russian whisky or brandy which is usually distilled from rye, but sometimes from potatoes.

P. 255. "Turaniens." People speaking the language which is designated as Turanian, a word "loosely and indefinitely applied to the Asiatic languages in general outside of the Indo-European and Semitic families."

"Isl'am." The religious system of the Mohammedans.

P. 256. "Kō'ran" [or ko-rān'.] The Mohammedan bible; the book containing the religious system and moral code of the Mohammedans.

"Cos'sack." One of a military people living on the steppes of Russia, in Caucasia, Siberia, and elsewhere. They are supposed to have been originally refugees from the ancient limits of Russia, who were compelled by hostile invasion to adopt a military mode of life which developed into a tribal existence.

P. 257. "Laveleye" [lāv-lā], Émile Louis de. (1822-1891.) A Belgian political economist and the author of numerous works.

"Cadi." A chief judge or magistrate. The Spanish word alcaydē is the Moorish al cadi.

P. 258. "Hel'len-ized." Made Hellenic or Grecian. The Greek name for the word Greek was Hel'ene, from the name of the mythical founder of the race, Hellen.

P. 261. "Ot'to-man." The word is formed from Othman or Osman, the name of the founder of the Turkish empire in Asia. It distinguishes that branch of the Turks which founded and rule the empire.

P. 266. "Cä-po-dis'tri-ās."

P. 272. "Lit'to-ral." From a Latin word for seashore. Pertaining to the coast of the sea. The country which lies along the shore.

"Porte." The Ottoman court; the government of the Turkish empire. It is commonly called the Sublime Porte, meaning lofty gate. "In the Byzantine empire, the gates of the palaces were the place of assembly for judicial and legal administration.

P. 274. "Nicholas." The Russian tsar.

P. 277. "Bash'i-ba-zouks." Volunteer and irregular auxiliaries serving in connection with the Turkish army for maintenance but without pay or uniform."

P. 291. "Romansch" [ro-mansh']. Belonging to the group of Romance dialects spoken in South-eastern Switzerland.

P. 297. "Olaus Rudbeck." (1630-1702.) An eminent Swedish anatomist and botanist, the author of "Atlantica" in which he maintains that Sweden is the "Atlantis" of Plato.

P. 298. "Li-tur'gic-al." Of the nature of, or pertaining to a liturgy, which is an established formula for public worship.

P. 312. "Hanks." Skeins of yarn or thread. A hank of cotton yarn measures eight hundred and forty yards; of linen yarn or thread three thousand yards.

P. 313. "Berthollet" [bër-to-lä.]

P. 330. "Vendettas." See note on page 235 of THE CHAUTAUQUAN for November.

P. 333. "U-ni-cam'er-al." Said of a legislative body having but a single chamber or house. Latin, *unus*, one, *camera*, a chamber.

P. 334. "Absenteeism." The practice followed so generally by landlords of living away from their landed estates.

"Autonomy." See note on page 107 of THE CHAUTAUQUAN for October.

"Re-ha-bil-i-ta'tion." The act of reinstating in a former rank or capacity; restoration to former rights, or reestablishment in the esteem of others.

P. 335. "Imperium in imperio." A kingdom within a kingdom; a government within a government.

REQUIRED READINGS IN "THE CHAUTAUQUAN."

"THE PAINTER'S ART IN ENGLAND."

1. "Pari passu." A Latin expression meaning with equal pace; together.

2. "Ge-hen'na." "In Jewish history, the Valley of Hinnom, south of Jerusalem, where the Israelites once sacrificed their children to Moloch, where the city of Sodom was thrown and fires were kept burning to purify

the air. The place of future punishment for the wicked."

3. "Bän'al." In its early history this word, like ban (proclamation, edict), derived from Latin, meant pertaining to compulsory feudal service; applied especially to mills, wells, ovens, etc., used in common by people of the lower classes, upon the command

of a feudal superior. Hence, common, commonplace. Ba-nāl'ī-ty, in old French, meant the right by which a lord compelled his vassals to grind at his mill, bake at his oven, etc. Hence, the state of being banal or common or trite; commonplaceness.

4. "Champs Elysées" [shān zā-lē-zā]. Elysian Fields; a beautiful public park in Paris.

5. "Per'se-us." A Grecian legendary hero who after several notable exploits discovered one day a strange sight on the seashore. Princess Andromeda, a beautiful maiden, had been chained fast to the rock-bound coast and left the prey of a terrible sea monster in order to atone for the vanity of her mother Cassiopeia, who had claimed that she was fairer than any of the sea nymphs. Perseus slew the monster just then approaching to devour her, freed the maiden, and made her his bride.

6. "Ateliers" [ā-te-lyā]. A French word for studios, or workshops.

7. "The-māt'ic." Of or pertaining to a theme, or subject.

8. "Corot" [ko-rō]. "Millet" [mē-yā]. Degas [dā-gā]. "Monet" [mo-nā].

9. "Plein Airists." "The *plein* [plān] *air* school of modern French painters whose creed is to paint their pictures in the open air," or with open air effects.—"The Impressionist school is a contemporary school of painters, the adherents of which set themselves to render, not reality in its minuteness, but a rapid aspect of nature, reproducing as nearly as possible the impression made upon their own mind by any particular scene."

10. "Tours de force." French. Feats of strength or skill.

"SOCIAL LIFE IN ENGLAND IN THE NINETEENTH CENTURY."

1. "Ap'o-gee." The point in the orbit of a planet or heavenly body which is farthest from the earth. Greek, *apo*, from, and *ge*, the earth.

2. "*Bona fide*." Latin; in good faith; genuine.

3. "Lu-cul'us." (109-57 B. C.) A Roman general, who after retiring from active life spent his time at his rural villas in the enjoyment of a princely fortune, and in royally entertaining his friends. It is said that a single supper cost him the sum of \$8,500.

4. "*Premier crâ*." French. Of the first growth; of ancient growth; the best.

5. "Guineas." English money of account. A guinea is of the value of twenty-one shillings, about five dollars.

6. "Tattersall's." The name of a race ground in Grosvenor Place, London, so-called after Richard Tattersall, who was originally a training groom of the duke of Kingston. He made a great fortune by purchasing the celebrated horse, Highflyer, for which he paid the sum of £2,500.

7. "*Fin de siècle*" [fān de se-a-kl]. End of the century. "This phrase is much used in contemporary French to designate the ideas, persons, and things characteristic of the closing years of the nineteenth century."

8. "Auber" [o-ber]. "Rossini" [ros-see'nee]. "Bellini" [bel-lee'nee]. "Donizetti" [do-ne-dzet'tee]. "Verdi" [vār'dee]. "Meyerbeer" [mī'er-bār]. "Wag'ner" or vāg'ner. "Gounod" [goo-no].

9. "*Opera bouffe*" [boof]. A French expression taken from the Italian word for jest. Comic opera.

10. "*Cacoethes scribendi*" [kak-o-e-thēs scri-ben'di]. Latin. A morbid propensity for writing; a desire for authorship.

11. "Mac-ad'am-ized." Covered with road metal, or finely broken stone, which is rolled down into the road bed with heavy rollers. So called from the man who invented the process.

12. "Parquet floors" [par-kā or par-ket']. Floors consisting of a mosaic of woodwork.

13. "Con'su-late." The government which existed in France from the overthrow of the Directory in 1799 to the establishment of the empire in 1804.

14. "Gigot" [jig'ut]. A French word for leg of mutton.

"THE FRENCH CHAMBERS."

1. "Plebiscite" [pleb'ī-sit]. From two Latin words meaning the people and a decree. "An expression of the will or pleasure of the whole people in regard to some measure already decided upon; a vote of the whole people for the ratification or disapproval of some matter. Chiefly of French usage."

2. "*Coup d'état*" [koo dā tā]. French. A stroke of policy; an extraordinary and violent measure taken by a government when the safety of the state is, or is supposed to be, in danger; action of importance to the state.

"THE QUESTION OF MADAGASCAR."

1. "The July Monarchy." The monarchy of Louis Philippe. When in July, 1830, Charles X., the king of France, attempted to suspend some of the most important guarantees secured to the people by the charter granted them by Louis XVIII. at the time of the Restoration, a formidable insurrection broke out. Charles was obliged to abdicate, and Louis Philippe was appointed king by the Chamber of Deputies. The July monarchy, as it was termed, lasted nearly eighteen years.

2. "Ex-e-quā'tur." A Latin verb meaning when translated literally, Let him execute (it); this form of the verb being in subjunctive mood, third person, singular number. It is used in English to denote an authoritative recognition, as of a document or right; an official warrant or permission. Specifically, a written recognition of a person in the character of consul or commercial agent, issued by the government to which

he is accredited, and authorizing him to exercise his powers.

3. "Mayors of the palace." "In France, originally the first officers of the royal household, then the first officers of state under the Merovingian kings. Gradually these officers aggrandized their own influence to the detriment of that of the monarchs, till the latter ruled only nominally, all real power being usurped by the mayors."

4. "Corvée" [kor-vā]. "In feudal law, an obligation to perform certain services, such as mending roads, for the king or a feudal lord. In present use any system of forced labor, as in Egypt in the annual rise of the Nile."

5. "The Cape." Cape Colony.

"THE WORLD'S DEBT TO ASTRONOMY."

1. "Cy'no-sure." One name of the constellation of the Little Bear, which contains the pole star, to which the eyes of mariners are directed. Hence the popular use of the word as applied to anything that attracts attention; a center of attraction.

2. "Sir'us." The dog star.

3. "Al'ma-gest." From an Arabic word meaning the greatest. A collection of problems in astronomy and geometry, given by Ptolemy; so named by the Arabs because it was reckoned the greatest work on these subjects.

4. "Calendars." From a Latin word for account-book, interest book, and this was so called because interest became due on the calends, or kalends, the first day of the month with the Romans. Tables of the days of the months in a year.

5. "Observatories." Places or buildings fitted up with instruments for making observations of the phenomena of nature, as astronomical or meteorological observatories.

6. "Vulcan's fall." The god of fire and of the forge was Vulcan, son of Jupiter and Juno. He was tenderly attached to his mother, and on one occasion when Jupiter had hung her out of heaven by a golden chain to punish her for a fit of jealousy, Vulcan was about to loose the chain and set her free when he was discovered by his father. Jupiter was so angry at the interference that he thrust Vulcan out of heaven. The space between heaven and earth was so great that he was a whole day and night in falling. His aversion to Mount Olympus, the home of the gods, heaven, was always strong after this occurrence. The Greeks thought that their country occupied a central position on the earth, and that Mount Olympus, the mythological abode of their gods, was placed in the exact center and that its cloud-encircled summit pierced the heavens.

7. "Co-per'ni-cus." (1473-1543.) The great Polish or German astronomer.

8. "Par'al-lax." "The difference in the direction

of an object as seen from two different places. For a simple illustration of it, hold your finger before you in front of the window. Upon looking at it with the left eye only, you will locate your finger at some point on the window; on looking with the right eye only, you will locate it at an entirely different point. The difference in the direction of your finger as seen from the two eyes is parallax. In astronomical calculations the position of a body as seen from the earth's surface is called its apparent place, while that in which it would be seen from the center of the earth is called its true place. It has been agreed by astronomers, for the sake of uniformity in their calculations to correct all observations so as to refer them to their true places as seen from the center of the earth."

"SOME CONTEMPORARY ENGLISH NOVELISTS."

1. "Chalet" [shā-lā]. A residence built after the style of a Swiss mountain cottage, this being the name of the dwelling houses of the Swiss peasantry, and also of the mountain cabins in which their herdsmen are housed at night on the mountains.

2. "An-thol'o-gy." From two Greek words meaning flower and to gather. A garland, a collection of flowers. More commonly, a collection of poems, epigrams, and fugitive pieces by different authors,—a gathering of the flowers of literature.

3. "Rara avis." Latin. A rare bird.

"GREAT CANALS."

1. "Hy-draul'ic." Pertaining to fluids in motion. The science which treats of the motion of liquids and the application of the principles to conducting and raising water in conduits, is called hydraulics.

2. "Am'ru ibn el Aas." One of Mohammed's early proselytes, a valiant soldier in the conquest of Syria and Egypt. He became emir of the latter country.

3. "Abou Giaffar [ja'f'far] el Mansour." One of the renowned caliphs of Bagdad, the one who founded that famous city. He introduced the taste for literature and for many progressive works.

4. "The Le-vent'." The region east of Italy lying on and near the Mediterranean, sometimes reckoned as extending east to the Euphrates and as taking in the Nile Valley, thus including Greece and Egypt; more specifically, the coast region and islands of Asia Minor and Syria. The name was originally given by the Italians, who derived it from a Latin verb meaning to rise, and applied it to the land lying in the direction of the rising sun.

5. "Sault" [sō]. The rapids in the river.

"A VISIT TO BISMARCK."

1. "Chateau" [shā-tō]. The French word for castle or manor house; a large residence, usually in the country.

2. "Po-lō'ni-us." A character in Shakespeare's play of "Hamlet"; lord chamberlain to the king of Denmark; "a garrulous old courtier who fancies himself a shrewd politician."

3. "Schloss." The German word for castle or mansion.

4. "*Homme d'affaires*." A French expression. Literally, a man of affairs, a business man. A steward, an agent.

5. "Marks." German coins, each one of which

is equal to 23.8 cents of United States money.

Erratum. By a careless blunder a misstatement was made in the sentence at the top of the second column on page 9 of the October number of THE CHAUTAUQUAN. The statement should read, "A late promising innovation has been the compound or double cylinder locomotive, the second and larger cylinder utilizing the exhaust steam from the smaller, and thereby increasing the power of the machine."

QUESTIONS AND ANSWERS.

ON THE C. L. S. C. TEXT-BOOKS.

"THE GROWTH OF THE ENGLISH NATION."

1. Q. When did the English language make its final triumph in the English nation? A. In the fourteenth century.

2. Q. What fruit was borne of the seed sown by the story of Piers Plowman? A. The Lollard movement and the Peasant Revolt.

3. Q. What statutes were enacted in the fourteenth century against the pretensions of the church? A. The Statute of Præmunire and the Statute of Provisors.

4. Q. For how long a time did the rival popes of Rome and Avignon contest the powers and privileges of the Holy See? A. For fifty years.

5. Q. What was the essential feature of Wiclif's reform? A. The endeavor to recall the church to apostolic Christianity.

6. Q. Why did John of Gaunt withdraw his favor from Wiclif? A. Because the latter boldly denied the doctrine of transubstantiation.

7. Q. To what did Wiclif devote his energies during the last years of his life? A. To translating the Bible into the speech of the people.

8. Q. How was he prevented from obeying a summons to Rome to answer to a charge of heresy? A. He was stricken with paralysis and died before the pope's anathema could reach him.

9. Q. What other reform movement of great significance agitated the people of the fourteenth century? A. The struggle of the laboring people to free themselves from feudal dependence.

10. Q. How did Edward III. seek to develop the infant industry of the manufacture of cloth? A. By offering his protection to Flemish artisans who would settle in England and ply this trade.

11. Q. Under what responsibility were the guilds of this time held? A. The town authorities looked to them for the honest conduct of trade.

12. Q. What gave rise to the Peasants' Revolt? A. The oppression of the laboring people.

13. Q. How does Froissart describe Wat Tyler, the leader? A. As a bad man and a great enemy to the nobility.

14. Q. To what was the eventual emancipation of the serfs in England due? A. To the gradual operation of economic forces.

15. Q. When was the first act against heretics inscribed among English statutes? A. In the reign of Henry IV.; it condemned the one found guilty to be burned to ashes.

16. Q. What English king is said to be the best product of his age? A. King Henry V.

17. Q. How did religious reform prosper during his reign? A. It smoldered in secret until the Reformation.

18. Q. Of what great projects did Henry V. dream? A. The conquest of France, of reducing the Turks to submission and restoring the Holy Sepulcher to Christian keeping.

19. Q. To what dangers was England exposed at the death of Henry V.? A. The prince of Wales was but nine months old and the realm had to meet the difficulties of a long minority.

20. Q. In whom did the awakened patriotism of France find expression when that country had touched the lowest ebb of its fortunes? A. In Joan of Arc.

21. Q. Who was crowned king of England at the age of seven and king of France at ten? A. Henry VI.

22. Q. What gave rise to the War of the Roses? A. The rival claims to the throne made by the Lancastrians and the Yorkists.

23. Q. With which house did the final victory lie? A. The Yorkists.

24. Q. How is the last of the York kings, Richard III., characterized? A. As the worst product of his age.

25. Q. How is the fifteenth century described? A. As a brutal age, in which selfish materialism overwhelmed patriotism, religion, chivalry, and checked all literary impulse.

"EUROPE IN THE NINETEENTH CENTURY."

1. Q. How is Ireland governed? A. By a centralized authority wielded directly from Dublin

Castle, the seat of the English lord lieutenant.

2. Q. What second grievance has the Emerald Isle? A. That the Protestant population is simply an English garrison.

3. Q. By what act did Mr. Gladstone signalize his advent to the prime ministry? A. The dis-establishment of the Irish church.

4. Q. What question has overshadowed everything else in Ireland? A. The land question.

5. Q. What is the Home Rule which Irish Nationalists seek? A. An Irish Parliament empowered to manage Irish interests.

6. Q. How does the population of the Russian empire compare with that of the United States? A. It is nearly twice as large, numbering 113,000,000.

7. Q. In what relation to the civil power does the Russian church stand? A. It is under the direct rule of the tsar, being an established state church.

8. Q. How does the Russian government differ from all other European governments? A. It is the only absolute hereditary monarchy.

9. Q. What convinced Tsar Alexander II. that he had carried his governmental reform and liberalism too far? A. The attempt made by Poland to regain its liberty.

10. Q. How are temperance societies treated in Russia? A. They are forbidden as seditious, since the government tax on whisky is a large source of income.

11. Q. Tried by that test of good government, protection to life and property, how does Turkey rank? A. About as bad as government possibly can.

12. Q. Under whom did Constantinople become the seat of Turkish power? A. The Ottoman Turks, in 1453.

13. Q. When and where was the high water mark of the Turkish empire in Europe reached? A. In 1682, at Vienna.

14. Q. What has formed the history of eastern Europe for the last two hundred years? A. The gradual expulsion of the Turks from the continent.

15. Q. What was the first treaty the Turks made with a Christian power? A. That recognizing Hungarian independence.

16. Q. When was Turkish despotism over Greece brought to a close? A. By the battle of Navarino in 1827.

17. Q. What Slav countries have freed themselves from Turkish rule? A. Montenegro, Roumania, Servia, Bulgaria.

18. Q. What has been the long standing relation existing between Russia and Turkey? A. That of enemies.

19. Q. Who were the leading contestants in the

Crimean War? A. Russia and Turkey, with England and France as allies of the latter.

20. Q. What is the Eastern Question? A. The disposal which is to be made of the Turkish possessions, especially Constantinople.

21. Q. What powers are most deeply interested in the future of Turkish dominions? A. Russia, Austria, and England.

22. Q. Name several possible solutions of the Eastern Question. A. To place the Turkish possessions under Russian Dominance, under Austrian dominance, to make them a cluster of independent states, or a Balkan federation.

23. Q. When did the confederated cantons of Switzerland find themselves free from allegiance to the German empire? A. At the close of the Thirty Years' War, in 1648.

24. Q. What one peculiar feature of legislation marks the Swiss republic? A. The referendum.

25. Q. How has the history of the Netherlands been modified? A. By the extraordinary nature of the country which lies mostly below sea level.

26. Q. What two facts in history have left their mark on the character of the Dutch? A. The eighty years' war against Spain and their former maritime and naval power.

27. Q. What monarchy made the most successful of the European attempts at colonizing Africa? Belgium, in the Congo Free State.

28. Q. Which is the most sparsely settled country in Europe? A. Norway.

29. Q. Name some of the marked contrasts existing between the northern and southern peninsulas of Europe. A. Those in race, in language, in religion, and in education.

30. Q. Why had Denmark to pay a heavy penalty after the French wars? A. Because it had remained steadfastly loyal to Napoleon.

31. Q. How came Spain to be a constitutional monarchy? A. In its war of liberation from French dominance under Napoleon, the patriots drew up a constitution, and the king, glad to get his throne back on any terms, signed it.

32. Q. What three substances form the best exponent of the material progress of the age? A. Cotton, iron, wool.

33. Q. What is the most obvious and serious thing in the present European situation? A. The military question.

34. Q. In what most effective way has the democratic tendency of modern times made itself manifest? A. By gaining universal suffrage.

35. Q. What great American idea has Europe not yet learned? A. That of free unsectarian education for all, at the cost of the state.

THE QUESTION TABLE.

ANSWERS IN NEXT NUMBER.

ENGLISH HISTORY AND LITERATURE.—III.

1. What book, published in the sixteenth century, is said to have had the greatest influence on English composition?
2. What is the most celebrated English work ever published, the author of which is unknown?
3. To whom has the authorship of the above work been attributed?
4. What English poet wrote his three most important works in different languages?
5. For what were Samuel Johnson, Samuel Taylor Coleridge, and Thomas Carlyle celebrated?
6. Who was considered the greatest spendthrift among English authors?
7. What was the most celebrated partnership known to English letters?
8. What was the first and most perfect marriage hymn in the English language?
9. By whom was the first English romance written and what was its title?
10. What is considered the greatest epic of the nineteenth century?

WOMAN'S WORLD.—III.

1. In what period of America's history was developed her pioneer woman journalist?
2. Who was the next American woman notably active in this field, and when did she enter it?
3. What was the pioneer woman suffrage newspaper of America?
4. What two American journalists of national fame were the principal founders of the American Suffrage Association?
5. Who invented the syndicate system of correspondence supplying matter simultaneously to newspapers all over the country?
6. How did Mary L. Booth first distinguish herself in literary work?
7. In what besides her literary work is Frances Power Cobbe prominent?
8. What English journalist, lecturer, and novelist was in the second half of this century appointed printer and publisher in ordinary to the queen?
9. What very noted French novelist used her pen in favor of elective franchise for women?
10. Among Germany's eminent women journalists name three active advocates of the industrial promotion of women.

ART.—III.

1. Whence chiefly came Rome's works of art?
2. Did the Romans have an independent school of painting?

3. Is there an eminent Roman painter?
4. What great Roman general, having conquered Corinth, stipulated with those who contracted to convey to Italy the finest paintings and statuary of Greece, that if any were lost on the voyage they should be replaced by others of equal value?
5. What noble Roman was a liberal patron of art and literature?
6. What became of the great works of art collected in Rome?
7. What distinct branch of the art of painting were the Romans the first to cultivate?
8. When painting reached its greatest depth of degradation in Rome how was the artist valued?
9. The Roman emperor Claudius caused the face of the famous picture of Alexander the Great painted by Apelles, to be erased and that of a Roman substituted instead; whose was it?
10. What event "potted for posterity" in a perfect state of preservation a great collection of Roman art?

CURRENT EVENTS.—III.*

1. Of what dynasty is the czar of Russia and how far back does this dynasty claim to trace its descent?
2. Trace the line of descent which links Princess Alix of Hesse, the affianced of the new czar, to the English throne.
3. What proportion of the solid land of the earth does Russia comprise?
4. In his proclamation of himself as czar of Russia, what did Nicholas II. promise to make his aim?
5. What did Lord Rosebery in a speech at Sheffield declare to be the watchword, the reign, and the character of the late czar?
6. What relation does Dr. Parkhurst who urged the women of New York to take an active part in politics and help put an end to misrule and corruption, hold to woman suffrage?
7. When and for what purpose was the Tammany Society organized?
8. Whose biography written by James Anthony Froude roused a perfect storm of reproach?
9. The events which led to the resignation of the German chancellor, Caprivi, seems to indicate a return on the part of the emperor to what policy?
10. What event gave rise to the proposed changes regarding the standing army?

*This set of questions is based upon the topics treated in *Current History and Opinion* in this number of THE CHAUTAUQUAN.

ANSWERS TO QUESTIONS IN "THE CHAUTAUQUAN"
FOR NOVEMBER.

ENGLISH HISTORY AND LITERATURE.—II.

1. Artistic composition in words, or thought artistically expressed, either spoken or written. 2. The English. 3. Cædmon, sometimes called "the father of English song." 4. The epic poem, "Beowulf." 5. Geoffrey Chaucer, known also as the "morning star of English poetry"; "The Canterbury Tales." 6. From its being used by a royal follower, King James I. of Scotland. 7. Bede, known in history as "The Venerable Bede"; the "Ecclesiastic History of the English Nation." 8. The "father of English prose," and the "morning star of the Revolution." 9. Howard, earl of Surrey, in his translation of "Virgil's Æneid." 10. In "Paradise Lost."

WOMAN'S WORLD.—II.

1. Cicero. 2. The nun Ava (died 1127). 3. Hannah Adams. 4. Phillis Wheatley. 5. Julia Ward Howe, while on a visit to the camps near Washington, in 1861. 6. It was at that time "the one American book that had taken Europe by storm." 7. Miss Frances Burney. 8. Mrs. Hemans (Felicia Dorothea Browne). 9. Mrs. Mary Somerville. 10. Elizabeth B. Browning.

ART.—II.

1. With the struggle against the Persians. 2. In the myths of gods and heroes. 3. Polygnotus, who lived about 493-426 B. C. 4. Zeuxis and Parrhasius. 5. It was his custom, when he had finished a picture, to place it where it could be seen by passers-by and to conceal himself and listen to their remarks. One day a shoemaker, having criticised the slipper of a figure, the artist changed it. The next day, the shoemaker, bolder grown, found fault with the leg, when Apelles indignantly uttered the words of the expression. 6. Apelles. 7. Apollodorus on account of his picturesque arrangement of light and shade. 8. It is reported that he died of laughing over the

picture of an old woman that he painted. 9. Etruscan vases. 10. Upon panels mostly, sometimes upon walls, and occasionally on canvas; the colors were white, yellow, red, and black.

CURRENT EVENTS.—II.

1. On both sides of the Mississippi from fifty-seven miles below New Orleans to nearly one hundred and ninety miles above; on the Red River and its tributaries; and on many of the bayous. 2. The first tariff act passed after the adoption of the Constitution, July 4, 1789, placed a duty of one cent a pound on raw sugar, and of three cents on refined sugar. 3. The ophthalmoscope, the instrument by which the retina of the living eye may be inspected. 4. It is generally ascribed to a Virginia farmer named Charles Lynch who undertook to punish a thief with his own hands instead of delivering him to the law, by tying him to a tree and flogging him. 5. That of reclaiming the Colorado desert, which lies mostly below sea level. It is to be accomplished by diverting a part of the water from the Colorado River to the greatest depression in the desert, thus forming a lake from which irrigating canals can be built in all directions. 6. A history of the Civil War. 7. That after January 1, 1897, it shall not be allowed in any form. 8. A body of thirty men from one of the southern provinces presented in March, 1893, a petition to the king asking the rehabilitation of their religious founder who had been put to death under ignominious circumstances in 1864, and for permission to practice their religion (Buddhism). The king refused to receive the petition; sent the petitioners home; and bade them return to their faith in Confucianism. The Tong Hak, or followers of the Eastern religion, revolted; Japan undertook to help quell the disturbance; and China attacked Japan for interference in a tributary kingdom of China. 9. The father of the king of Corea. 10. On account of supposed remissness in prosecuting the war against Japan.

THE C. L. S. C. CLASSES.

1882-1898.

CLASS OF 1895.—"THE PATHFINDERS."

"The truth shall make you free."

OFFICERS.

President—Dr. W. F. Crafts, Pittsburg, Pa.

Vice Presidents—Prof. H. B. Adams, Baltimore, Md.; the Rev. J. B. Morton, Winter Park, Fla.; Miss Mary Davenport, Brooklyn, N. Y.; George P. Hukill, Oil City, Pa.; Robert A. Miller, Canton, O.; Mrs. H. S. Hawes, Richmond, Va.

Recording Secretary—Miss Mary E. Miller, Akron, O.

Corresponding Secretary—Miss Jane Mead Welch, Buffalo, N. Y.

Treasurer—R. M. Alden, 625 Maryland Avenue, Washington, D. C.

Trustee—George Hukill, Oil City, Pa.

Historian—Miss Janette Trowbridge, New Haven, Conn.

CLASS FLOWER—NASTURTIUM.

CLASS EMBLEM—A BLUE RIBBON.

THE members of '95 are showing much zeal in the prosecution of their fourth year's work. So far from considering their work as drawing near to a close, we find them even at this point in their career helping to organize new circles and thus perpetuate the influence of the C. L. S. C. In some cases there are circles made up almost entirely of '95's, and these, we doubt not, are planning for special lines of work at the end of the four years.

MEMBERS of '95 and of other classes also who have used with so much pleasure the outline wall maps prepared by the C. L. S. C. office, will be glad to learn that a map of the British Isles has been

added to the number, to provide for the needs of circles studying English history. The map of Europe prepared last year will also be found very useful in the study of "Europe in the Nineteenth Century." Either map can be secured by sending fifty cents to the C. L. S. C. office at Buffalo, N. Y.

CLASS OF 1896.—"TRUTH SEEKERS."

OFFICERS.

President—The Rev. Chas. C. Johnson, Arcade, N. Y.

Vice Presidents—R. C. Browning, Orange, N. J.; Mrs. Francis W. Parker, Chicago, Ill.; Miss Cynthia I. Boyd, Knoxville, Tenn.; Mrs. Anna Hodgson, Athens, Ga.; F. G. Lewis, Manitoba; Oliver Ellsworth, Niles, Cal.; Mrs. Wheaton Smith, Detroit, Mich.

Corresponding Secretary—Miss Anna J. Young, 237 Wylie Ave., Pittsburg, Pa.

Recording Secretary—Miss Grace G. Merritt, Montclair, N. J.

Treasurer and Class Trustee—John A. Seaton, Glen Park Place, Cleveland, Ohio.

CLASS FLOWER—FORGET-ME-NOT.

CLASS EMBLEM—A LAMP.

THE C. L. S. C. office at Buffalo reports that many members of '96 who failed to send their fee and report last year, have forwarded the fee for the current year and taken up the work again. This is good news as it proves that though through stress of circumstances some of our class discontinued work for a time they propose to go forward at the earliest opportunity. Of course our "Roman" friends of '97 would gladly add a few belated '96's to their ranks, but we hope to bring the most of our members safely through in '96.

CLASS OF 1897—"THE ROMANS."

OFFICERS.

President—Prof. F. J. Miller, University of Chicago.

Vice Presidents—Prof. Wm. E. Waters, Cincinnati, O.; Mr. A. A. Stagg, Chicago, Ill.; Mrs. A. E. Barber, Bethel, Conn.; Miss Jessie Scott, Miss.; Mrs. M. T. Gawthrop, Swarthmore, Pa.; Mrs. C. B. Driscoll, Sidney, O.; Mrs. Carrie V. Shaw-Rice, Tacoma, Wash.; the Rev. James E. Coombs, Victoria, B. C.; Miss Emily Green, New South Wales; Charles E. Boyd, Cambridge, Mass.

Secretary—Miss Eva M. Martin, Dayton, O.

Treasurer and Trustee—Shirley P. Austin, Meadville, Pa.

CLASS EMBLEM—IVY.

TO THE CLASS OF '97.—Dear Classmates:—We have not as yet selected a class motto, and it begins to seem incongruous to many of our valiant "Romans" that we should go on further in our course without a motto. It seems to me that the logical necessity of our name is Cæsar's famous (if now somewhat trite) message, *Veni, vidi, vici*. I would suggest this as our motto, and call for words of assent or dissent from members of the class. I was empowered, as president of the class, by the representatives of the class at Chautauqua this summer to select a motto; and if no general objection is heard, the one suggested above will stand.

Yours fraternally,

F. J. MILLER, Class President.

CLASS OF 1898.—"THE LANIERS."

"The humblest life that lives may be divine."

OFFICERS.

President—Walter L. Hervey, New York City.

Vice Presidents—Clifford Lanier, Montgomery, Ala.; Dr. W. G. Anderson, New Haven, Conn.; Dr. Richard T. Ely, Madison, Wis.; Dr. J. M. Buckley, New York City; the Rev. Mr. Parker, New Orleans, La.; Miss J. Solomon, South Africa; Miss Eliot Henderson, Montreal, Can.; the Rev. Mr. Chalfont, China; Dr. J. E. Williams, Buffalo, N. Y.; Mrs. Josephine R. Webber, Waltham, Mass.; Dr. J. W. Hartigan, Morgantown, W. Va.

Treasurer and Trustee—The Rev. Mr. Whistler, Kenton, O.

Secretary—Miss Elizabeth Brown, Janesville, Wis.

CLASS FLOWER—VIOLET.

THE membership of the Class of '98 has already reached into the thousands. Fifty names have recently been reported from the southern Assemblies, sixty from Illinois, forty from Wisconsin and thirty from Iowa Assemblies. New circles are being organized everywhere and the publishers are severely taxed to keep pace with the demand for books. Evidently "The Laniers" are a power.

THE Class of '98 has enrolled its first member from the United States Army. An assistant surgeon from a post in California reports his name for membership. We hope to add others from the same place.

A RECENT letter from Japan brings an inquiry regarding the C. L. S. C. It is probable that this correspondent will become a member of the Class of '98. She is evidently very eager for information as her letter was written immediately upon the arrival in Japan of the magazine which contained the notice of the C. L. S. C.

A REQUEST for one hundred circulars has been received at the Central Office from Bombay, India. The writer has already ordered seven sets of books, and hopes to have at least a dozen new members to report for the Class of '98.

GRADUATE CLASSES.

A MEMBER of the Pioneer Class, who began the C. L. S. C. work at an isolated point on the Pacific coast and carried it through amid many obstacles, is now living in the city of Portland, Ore. She writes that she has just finished reading the course a second time, having gone over it with her daughter, who is now a student at Leland Stanford University.

FROM Brooklyn, N. Y., a member of '94 writes: "I shall miss the reading greatly as my books are now to me like old and helpful friends. The course has been very helpful to me and I urge my friends to take it up and be benefited by systematic and well directed literary work. So much of our reading nowadays is confined to our many paged newspapers, that unless one makes a determined effort the year will pass without his having read or opened a book. I expect to continue the very interesting art

studies this year in Professor Goodyear's 'Renaissance and Modern Art.' In fact the course has started the ball a rolling for instructive, uplifting and judicious reading, and when once started there is no telling where it will end."

THE new course in current history is already

attracting much attention and there is every indication that a large number of graduates will organize for the special study of this admirable course. All who are interested and who have failed to see the announcements should write at once to John H. Vincent, Buffalo, N. Y.

LOCAL CIRCLES.

C. L. S. C. MOTTOES.

"We Study the Word and the Works of God."

"Let us Keep our Heavenly Father in the Midst."

"Never be Discouraged."

C. L. S. C. MEMORIAL DAYS.

OPENING DAY—October 1.

BRYANT DAY—November 3.

SPECIAL SUNDAY—November, second Sunday.

MILTON DAY—December 9.

JOHN WYCLIF DAY—December 10.

GEOFFREY CHAUCER DAY—January 7.

COLLEGE DAY—January, last Thursday.

SPECIAL SUNDAY—February, second Sunday.

LONGFELLOW DAY—February 27.

SHAKESPEARE DAY—April 23.

ADDISON DAY—May 1.

SPECIAL SUNDAY—May, second Sunday.

SPECIAL SUNDAY—July, second Sunday.

INAUGURATION DAY—August, first Saturday after first Tuesday; anniversary of the dedication of St. Paul's Grove at Chautauqua.

RECOGNITION DAY—August, third Wednesday after the first Tuesday.

WHAT OUR SECRETARIES ARE DOING.

RECENT reports from state and county secretaries show a widespread renewal of interest in the C.L.S.C. Among the new state secretaries may be mentioned Miss Mary H. Mather of Delaware, who has had charge of the Girls' Outlook Club at Chautauqua for some years past. Mrs. Emily Goodrich Smith of Connecticut was obliged to resign as state secretary for Connecticut owing to ill health; but Chautauquans generally will be interested to know that Dr. Frank Russell, president of the Class of '87, will act in her stead.

The Rev. H. C. Farrar, well known for his interest in Chautauqua work and in that of the Christian Endeavor societies, has accepted the position of state secretary for eastern New York. Dr. Farrar has conducted an active circle in his own church for many years, and will be glad to give service to circles in his field who feel the need of help.

The work in the state of Ohio is being considerably strengthened by the personal attention given to it by Mr. Robert A. Miller.

Nebraska has made an especially good record in the number of county secretaries enlisted. This is due to the wise leadership of the state secretary, Mr. W. E. Hardy.

Mr. J. H. Fryer, secretary for western Canada, has been carrying on a vigorous correspondence with churches and Y. M. C. A.'s, and many new readers will doubtless be the result. An excursion to Chautauqua from Canada was organized by Mr. Fryer in the summer, but the railroad strike demoralized arrangements so that it had to be abandoned.

Large and enthusiastic meetings have been held under the leadership of Chancellor Vincent in Chi-

cago on September 11, and in Evanston, Ill., where the results have been the organization of several new circles. At Galena, Ill., the church was crowded and many unable to secure admittance. A service was also held at Rockford, Ill., and the Chancellor proposes to hold others in Oklahoma Territory.

In the larger cities a great deal of aggressive work is reported. In New York City the New York Union reports through its secretary, Mr. F. M. Curtis, that they are anticipating one of the best years in the history of the union.

The Extension Committee of the Brooklyn Chautauqua Union, of which Mr. D. Harris Underhill is secretary, are carrying out a very interesting series of meetings this fall. They have divided the city into sections and expect to hold some fifteen or twenty meetings, each meeting to be held under the auspices of one or two circles in the vicinity. As there are between twenty and thirty circles in Brooklyn, the possibilities of extending the work are considerable, and it is expected that a large number of new members will be added to the Class of '98. The first of these meetings was very successful.

Mr. George H. Lincks is secretary for Hudson County, N. J. The circles in northern New Jersey are considering the organization of a union for the county, and it is probable that the work will be extended at no distant day.

In Washington, D. C., under the leadership of Mr. W. R. Woodward, the work is being widely extended. A correspondent from that city writes, "The prospect of C. L. S. C. work in this city for '94-5 is very bright. Eight or ten of us met last night as representatives of different local circles and talked

over C. L. S. C. interests with very gratifying results. We now have a movement on foot to hold a grand rally."

In Buffalo, N. Y., the C. L. S. C. rally was held on the evening of October 1. The Chautauqua Circle meeting at the People's Church invited all the members of the C. L. S. C. and their friends, and the parlors of the church were crowded. The evening was devoted to a literary program, and closed with songs by the Æolian Quartette and a social gathering. The result has already shown itself in a large increase of new members in several of the circles.

In Denver, Colo., the Chautauquans are as usual showing much activity. Under the leadership of the state secretary, the Rev. B. T. Vincent, and the president of the Rocky Mountain Assembly, Mr. F. M. Priestley, the work is being successfully developed. The summer Assembly is reported as very successful, and the result is an increase of interest throughout the state. On Friday evening, September 21, the Denver Chautauqua Union held a public meeting. Addresses were delivered on the C. L. S. C. and the required books for the current year. A number of new members were enrolled and a temporary local alumni association was organized with a nucleus of ten members. The Chautauquans of Denver propose to hold a convention in November.

In the far West and Northwest the outlook is reported as encouraging, although the Pacific Coast has felt the hard times very severely.

From county workers have come many interesting reports. The rally held by Bishop Vincent in Chicago was organized through the efficient leadership of Mrs. Francis L. Beebe, president of Outlook Circle and secretary of the work in the city of Chicago. The rally in Evanston was organized by Mrs. Sarah Bailey Mann, the secretary for Cook County. Much interest has been awakened in many parts of this county, and one of the leading agricultural papers has agreed to publish in its columns that most effective little Chautauqua story, "The Evolution of Mrs. Thomas."

In Pennsylvania, Miss Lilla Snyder, the secretary for Berks County, reports the reorganization of St. Andrews Circle, which has taken the oversight of the work in the county. The papers have shown a friendly spirit and have been glad to publish articles regarding the work. In Warren County, through the efforts of Judge Charles H. Noyes, a county union has been organized. All members of the C. L. S. C. in the county are invited to join the union, and it is proposed to hold an occasional rally and to arrange for union vesper services and other meetings which will draw the members together. The Rev. Eli Pickersgill, secretary of Schuylkill County, reports a decided increase of interest in various parts of his field.

From Ohio much good work is reported. Clarke County, under the leadership of Mr. C. M. Nichols, reports the reorganization of the Worthington Circle, one of the oldest in Ohio, and a general public meeting to be held at an early date for the purpose of extending the work. Mrs. Emma Ferrall, secretary of Carroll County, reports a new circle besides the reorganization of an old one. The hard times make work in this county especially difficult. Mr. J. H. Kaufman, secretary of Stark County, has been most active in developing a rally in the city of Canton. Dr. J. C. M. Floyd, secretary of Jefferson County, has reached many local conventions with circulars of the C. L. S. C., and is watching all parts of this important field with the utmost care.

The Rev. F. A. Hatch, secretary of Fairfield County, Conn., has reorganized his own circle at Danbury, and as he is to do considerable lecturing during the coming weeks, will have many opportunities for developing the work of the C. L. S. C.

Miss Alice Mayhew, secretary for Milwaukee County, sends an encouraging report of the outlook in Milwaukee. The circles are reorganizing, and they are planning for much aggressive work.

Mr. James B. Dudley, secretary for New Hanover County, N. C., has placed circulars in the hands of the leading teachers in the county and has many friends enlisted. He is principal of the public schools of Wilmington, and has a wide influence in the county.

Other reports are being received daily, and further items of interest will be published in the succeeding numbers of *THE CHAUTAUQUAN*.

NEW CIRCLES.

CANADA.—Some Montreal young men between eighteen and twenty years old, having graduated from the Montreal Senior School, have united to form a Chautauqua circle. They will have access to a large microscope and probably a telescope; they all are interested in chemistry and natural philosophy and hope to arrange for a small laboratory.

VERMONT.—An enthusiastic C. L. S. C. has been organized in Thetford.

CONNECTICUT.—A thriving Chautauqua circle was organized at Stafford Springs, on September 12. About a dozen persons joined it to take the current topics seal course, some of whom have read the regular course, others have not. Besides these the membership roll shows a dozen regular readers.

NEW YORK.—Prosperity is gladdening circles recently formed at New York City (W. 95th St.), Panama, Valley Cottage, and West New Brighton.—There are bright prospects for circles at Nyack and New Brighton.—About fifteen persons, most of whom are members of Bushwick Ave. Baptist church, expect to start a circle in Brooklyn.

NEW JERSEY.—There are fine classes at Dunellen and Haddonfield.—The circle at Newton has had

one meeting. Most of its thirty-five members are young women and men in the church and Y.P.S.C.E. All are pleased with the work and anticipate a very pleasant winter.

PENNSYLVANIA.—Mahanoy City has a promising circle of thirteen members.

DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA.—At the mass meeting of the District Epworth Leagues held September 14, in Trinity M. E. Church of Washington, the representative of Wesley Chapel told the leaguers how her chapter had formed a Chautauqua circle, and advised all the chapters to form similar circles. The chairman of the meeting added that besides the one circle there are "a hundred scattered Chautauqua readers, who ought to get together and have a rousing circle at some central church." Later news from the chairman says that in the several chapters the literary heads are already at work utilizing the local readers interested in the Chautauqua plan of self-culture. He started in Waugh Chapter a class comprising upwards of twenty readers. They met on September 24 for a fuller organization, hoping that October 1 would find them at work. Wesley Chapel has a fine class again this season. Foundry Chapter has about a dozen individual readers and Dunbarton also has several. So instead of "one rousing circle" there are several distinct circles, that may follow the chairman's advice to the extent of finding an occasional union meeting helpful.

SOUTH CAROLINA.—Westbrooke C. L. S. C. of Yorkville has entered into the Chautauqua spirit with a vim. It is progressing well in its studies, and lately has had a series of special programs. The last meeting was Sentimental Night, and the entire program aside from the regular lesson was of a sentimental nature, especially the long report given by the critic of the evening, in which poetry and prose were harmoniously blended. That the sentiment was not without edge may be surmised from the following brief excerpt:

"Now I beseech you, lovely girl,
Till Nature turns your teeth to pearl,
Your neck to snow, your eyes to fire,
Those yellow locks to golden wire,
Attempt not to decree till then
A sentimental sketch again."

TENNESSEE.—A hopeful circle of ten duly organized, reports from Cornersville.—Clonian Literary Club of McMinnville will pursue the Chautauqua reading this winter. On account of a week's delay the club held two meetings the second week in October, which show a good spirit in the direction of success.

ALABAMA.—Some people at Mentone propose to organize a Chautauqua circle among their helpers.

MISSISSIPPI.—Much interest among its present members and a hope for increased membership is the news from a new circle at Iuka.

TEXAS.—The new circle at Greenville organized

with twenty-two members. Officers were elected and the name Truth Seekers adopted. The membership was limited to twenty-five. Meetings will be held Friday afternoons at 3 o'clock and adjourned at 4:30.

OHIO.—An enthusiastic circle is in progress at Elyria with at present six full members and others who take part of the reading.

INDIANA.—Seven '98's report from Churubusco.

ILLINOIS.—Nine '98's constitute a class at Pekin, and six '98's one at Evanston.—A Chautauquan at Payson, after having read alone two years, is organizing a circle.

MICHIGAN.—A circle is forming in Albion.

WISCONSIN.—An interesting little neighborhood club at Fort Atkinson is engaged in Chautauqua work.—Elroy expects to have a circle this season.

MINNESOTA.—Minnehaha Circle of Minneapolis holds weekly meetings which are interesting and helpful to all its nine members. They are working on the principle that they get good out of the course in proportion to the effort they put into the work. Their president is a thorough and capable leader.

IOWA.—At Red Oak there is a class of twelve '98's.

KANSAS.—Clifton has a circle.

SOUTH DAKOTA.—The flourishing class at Sioux Falls will probably be joined later by other members.—There is an enterprising class at Canton.

WASHINGTON.—Fort Spokane C. L. S. C. starts on its career with bright prospects.

OLD CIRCLES.

CANADA.—Alpha Circle of Galt, Ontario, has reorganized with a membership of twenty-nine, almost a new class. It expects good work, as much enthusiasm prevails. A graduate class was also formed.—Primrose Circle of Dundas is composed of eighteen zealous members. The circle is divided into three committees, each of which in rotation provides the program. The meetings, held twice a month, are opened with roll call responded to by quotations from an author previously selected. A sketch of the author's life and general conversation on it follows. The required work of the intervening two weeks is reviewed and discussed and papers on subjects relating to the work are introduced. Many of these papers were of unusual interest, notably those relating to the various economic questions of the day. The high school principal gave the circle two most scholarly papers, one on Homer, the other on Virgil. Discussions were very spirited on the subjects, "Heredity *versus* Environment" and "The Ideal as opposed to the Realistic in the Formation of Intellectual Character."

MAINE.—There is a circle at Fryeburg of many years' standing. The majority of its ranks are local members who of the books required in the C.L.S.C. read only THE CHAUTAUQUAN. Last year the circle made Roman history its chief subject and in that

branch was thorough.—News is received from Dirigo Circle of Lewistown.

VERMONT.—Informal Circle of Lyndonville has resumed work.

MASSACHUSETTS.—Hurlbut Circle of East Boston opened its eleventh season in the same parlors where its first meeting of each year has been held. Fifteen were present, of whom three were original members. Owing to the enthusiasm, genius, and versatility in the circle its meetings are well sustained and always enjoyable.—A stirring, prosperous circle of '97's is the Ivy Club of Haverhill.

The Brooklyn Chautauqua Union announcements are out for a course of entertainments for 1894-5 beginning with a reception, November 5. The program which is good throughout, shows addresses by Bishop John H. Vincent and Maj. Gen. O. O. Howard, the latter presiding on this evening, a reading by Chas. F. Underhill, and music by Miss Anna Park.—Chautauqua Circle of the People's Church, Buffalo, issued neat invitations, printed simply on strips of paper, to its general meeting on October 1. The invitations announced brief addresses upon subjects to be studied during the year, and music.—The circle at Hoosick Falls arranged for its closing exercises of last season a program to include a paper from each class from 1887 to the present time, also an address by the president.—Epworth C. L. S. C. of the First M. E. Church of Jamestown has organized for the winter. Fifty persons were enrolled and much interest manifested. A brief outline was given of the work for the next few weeks, which will begin immediately.—Circles report reorganization at Candor, Three Mile Bay, and Syracuse.

NEW JERSEY.—Before starting out on new work, Beach Circle of Jersey City makes sure of its footing by a review in English and European history, "Science at the Beginning of the Nineteenth Century," and "The Germans." The program at hand also includes: sketch, Marie Antoinette; sketch, Empress Josephine; table talk, Corea—the land, the people, and the government; discussion, Is the position taken by Mgr. Satolli on the liquor traffic one which can be sustained? The circle numbers thirty-three.

Tabernacle Circle of the same city begins the season with twenty members, who will meet weekly. They will pursue the regular course and in addition take up addresses, essays, debates, etc. At a recent session, an address was given on "Roman Remains in England" by one who last summer personally inspected the work of the ancients in England.

At its reorganization Una Circle, also of Jersey City, enrolled eleven active and three honorary members. It has retained five of its charter members, who will complete the four years' course in the spring. The circle includes five '98's.

Several new members have joined the Y. M. C. A. Circle, and anticipate a profitable season.

All together seven Chautauqua circles are known to exist in Jersey City, and a union of all the circles in Hudson County is in a fair way to be organized.

PENNSYLVANIA.—In response to a call published by the secretary for Warren County, a meeting of C. L. S. C. members and others interested in the work was held in the public library at Warren, which resulted in a county union. The circle at Glade is prospering and a class is forming at Warren.—Circles at Allegheny and Reading are heard from.—Anthracite Circle of Scranton enters with pleasant anticipations on its eighth year.

DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA.—Philologists at Washington are resuming activity, and with other circles of their place are propagating C. L. S. C. work. A number of applications for seal courses have been received from them.

GEORGIA.—The Senecas of Atlanta aim to show by their earnest application their great appreciation of the compliment paid to southern Chautauquans by the naming of the new class for their beloved Southland poet, Lanier.

ALABAMA.—Clara Swift Circle has been organized at Lower Peach Tree, with fifteen members, and Sidney Lanier Circle at Shelby, with a dozen members.—Alexander City has two earnest readers and Wilsonville two.—Talladega has a C. L. S. C. triangle.—Jasper is about to organize a circle that promises to be a success both in size and interest.—On November 4, at Fayette, a band of fifteen entered upon the C. L. S. C. readings and although the circle has been changed by both losses and additions, the meetings have gone on regularly and much good work has been accomplished.

ARKANSAS.—Three '97's report from Huntington.

OHIO.—Three years ago the circle at Akron started with twenty-five members. The next year the number had grown to forty, last year it was eighty-seven, and this year the prospects are good for a hundred.—River View has reorganized at New Richmond and the classes at Forest and New London.—News of festivities comes from the circle at Lithopolis.—St. John's C. L. S. C. at Toledo is prospering.—The class at Attica reorganized with four new members.—Fourteen persons constitute the class at Harbor. The meetings are attended by all but three of last year's members.—The circle at Geneva enjoyed in the spring two excellent lectures, one on the South and the other on Life in East London. Both of the speakers had visited the scenes they so forcibly discussed.

INDIANA.—Nucleus Club of Summit Grove is an active band.—There is a circle at Greenwood.

ILLINOIS.—Encouraging word is received from Bryant Circle of Hyde Park, Chicago. Outlook Circle, also of Chicago, makes use freely of postal cards on which to send out printed notices of its meetings. This class is ingenious in the application

of its knowledge.—Carlville has a class of '95's. —The new year's studies are being tackled by circles at Elgin and Malden.—The circle at Brighton took up its regular labors the first Tuesday evening in October, with every member present, hopeful and interested for the coming year. The regular pro-

gram was followed and plans for the welfare of the circle discussed. If something of importance happens to prevent this circle from holding its meeting on Tuesday, it manages to find some other evening in the week for it, as all of its nine members realize the importance of the work as an aid to culture.

TALK ABOUT BOOKS.

The Christmas publications are given the preference in the reviews of the month. They comprise so great a variety both in matter and in form as to make anything like a correct classification impossible. All fields of literature have been garnered and all realms of the book-maker's art ransacked for the thought, the taste, and the material which has furnished this great output, and the satisfactory results are such as must meet all requirements.

Holiday Editions of Standard Works. Green's "History of the English People"* is held by common consent to be the most important general history of England ever written. Compassing a period reaching from the earliest record of the land down to the year 1815, which saw the downfall of Napoleon, its value lies not alone in the careful and accurate information given, but also in the vigorous and interesting style in which it is told. It is published in four volumes of convenient size and of durable and attractive form.

That well known and highly estimated work, Mr. McCarthy's "History of our Own Times,"† appears in a new edition which has added to the original work, supplementary chapters, bringing the history down to the year 1894. Special interest centers about these new chapters. Even a cursory reading plainly reveals the fact that the writer is largely possessed of a subtle sympathetic spirit which has enabled him to enter into the mental attitude of the original author and to complete this account in a manner well in keeping with the earlier record. For an attractive bird's-eye view of modern English history no better standpoint can be found than the one furnished by this production.

When Mrs. Oliphant turned from successful novel writing to the field of historical literature she did not lay aside the facile grace which her pen had acquired in the former domain. In "The Victorian Age of English Literature,"‡ the fine critical studies of the works considered and the terse biographical narratives of their writers flow as smoothly and win the attention as readily as do the pages of her popular

fiction. She is frank, fearless, and discriminating in her estimates, and has made this work a remarkable one in comprehensiveness and completeness.

A work which has been before the public for a long time and whose value time only enhances, is Welsh's "Development of English Literature and Language."§ Perhaps no production of its kind ever won more unqualifiedly the praise of all critics. Historically, philosophically, and in a literary sense it takes high rank. It discusses the biography of the writers, their works, style, rank, and character; it studies the marked characteristics of each literary period; and gives selections from the works of the authors. There is left nothing wanting which can be demanded of a complete work.

A treasure house of knowledge regarding the literature of the far East has been recently opened to the reading world by Elizabeth A. Reed, who is widely known as an orientalist. Dealing with a subject which to the uninitiated seems bristling with difficulties, she has invested the whole with a deep interest. In her opening pages she brings strong proof to bear against the prevalent idea that the Veda is centuries older than the Old Testament writings. The full and clear studies made of these oriental productions and the many well selected specimens given make the book a successful and valuable one.

Boswell's "Life of Johnson,"¶ that work without which no library is complete and which never fails to interest, instruct, and amuse its readers, appears in two handsome volumes substantially bound and containing numerous portraits of the distinguished characters mentioned. The Introduction is a fine preparation for the work to follow, being a well rounded and forcible character study of the great author.

A fine large illustrated edition of Scott's poetical works|| comes out at this season with an admirable introduction pointing out the secrets of the poet's hold on the popular heart of the world, and with a succinct and sympathetic sketch of his life.

* History of the English People. Four vols. 2,041 pp. \$5.00. By John Richard Green., M. A.—† A History of Our Own Times. By Justin McCarthy. With Introduction and Supplementary Chapters by G. Mercer Adams. Two vols. 649+890 pp. \$5.50.—‡ The Victorian Age of English Literature. By Mrs. Oliphant. Two vols. 647 pp. \$3.50. New York: Lovell, Coryell & Company.

§ Development of English Literature and Language. By Alfred H. Welsh, A.M. Two vols. 1,100 pp. \$4.00.—¶ Hindu Literature. By Elizabeth A. Reed. 410 pp. \$3.00. Chicago: S. C. Griggs and Company.

¶ Boswell's Life of Johnson. Edited with an Introduction by Mowbray Morris. Two vols. 590+609 pp. \$3.00.—|| The

In the Handy Volume Series, so pleasing to all book lovers, appears Byron's *Childe Harold*.* The text is illustrated from photogravures of places mentioned. An appendix contains many clear explanatory notes.

Irving's "Tales of a Traveller"† with a new Introduction containing a clear biographical account of the author and a critical study of his literary style and influence, and also an addendum of several pages of explanatory notes, has been published under the name of a Student's Edition. Its editor had in view the requirements of students of English literature, and well has he met their wants.

A volume of selections from the works of Goldsmith‡ and one of selected essays from Addison|| form attractive companion works for the holiday season. For the former Edward Everett Hale has written an introduction giving a succinct personal history of the queer, lovable man; and of the author of the latter collection and his work, Mr. Winchester has made a fine introductory study.

A gem in beauty is a small volume of Longfellow's "Evangeline" § in its violet binding. The best of paper and of printing is shown in the work, and numerous fine and original illustrations embellish its pages.

Poetry.

The poems ¶ of Richard Watson Gilder, previously published in five small volumes, are collected and revised and fourteen new poems added. The fervid lines so richly freighted with melody proclaim the born lyricist, while their grace and finish recall the words of a brother singer,

"To thee our love and our allegiance
For thy allegiance to the poet's art."

Poetic imagery, freshness of thought, rare command of expressive phrase, and faultlessness of form are among the notable qualities of William Watson's verse. This new edition,** revised by the author, contains four elegiac poems, several pages of epigrams, each a gem, a long poem entitled "The Prince's Quest," and many on miscellaneous subjects. The binding of dark blue will bear the frequent handling which the book is sure to get.—"The Humours of the Court"†† is founded on two

Complete Poetical Works of Sir Walter Scott. With an Introduction by Charles Eliot Norton. Biographical Sketch by Nathan Haskell Dole. Two vols. 770 pp. \$3.00.—* *Childe Harold's Pilgrimage*. By Lord Byron. 283 pp. 75 cts. New York: Thomas Y. Crowell & Company.

† *Tales of a Traveller*. By Washington Irving. Edited by William Lyon Phelps. 558 pp. \$1.00. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons.

‡ *Oliver Goldsmith*. A selection from his works. 287 pp. \$1.00. || *Selected Essays of Joseph Addison*; 175 pp. 75 cts. New York: Funk & Wagnalls Company.

§ *Evangeline*. 125 pp. \$1.50. New York: Frederick A. Stokes Company.

¶ *Five Books of Song*. By Richard Watson Gilder. 240 pp. \$1.50. New York: The Century Co.

** *The Poems of William Watson*. 238 pp.—†† *The Humours*

Spanish comedies and is written in smooth and flowing measure.

That Langdon E. Mitchell inherits in large degree the poetic gifts of his father, Dr. S. Weir Mitchell, is evidenced by the little volume of poems* on many subjects, all graceful, pleasing, and full of promise.—The Cambridge edition of Whittier's poems† is a stout volume bound in garnet and enriched by a fine etching of the poet and his home at Amesbury. There is also a biographical sketch.

A collection of the best of Faber's hymns‡ forms a lyric treasury. Add to this fifty delicate wash drawings by L. J. Bridgman and a biographical sketch by N. H. Dole, the whole bound in beautifully designed covers of white and gold, and no more desirable gift book could be found.—A new illustrated edition of "The Light of Asia"|| is an acceptable addition to the Handy Volume Series. There is a good portrait of the author and four illustrations by W. St. John Harper.

The society verse of "Point Lace and Diamonds"§ has long been familiar, and the vest-pocket sized book of selections from it has quite a fetching air.—With covers strewn with purple and white violets comes a new edition of Lowell's *Poems*¶ sumptuously illustrated by Edmund M. Ashe.

The whimsical and humorous predominate in the handful of verses gathered in "A Patch of Pansies,"** but none the less sweet and true to pitch are the tender and pathetic ones.—Parts of the Bible story of the Book of Esther have been adopted by the author of "Vashti"†† and with much amplification made into a poem of considerable merit. The strong nature of the woman who dared ignore the command of her king and husband, the courage of Esther, and the love of race of Mordecai are well brought out.

Popular Translations.

The reported discovery made in an ancient convent by a holy monk, of a ceiling painting by one of the old masters, which had been long hidden away under several coats of whitewash, led a connoisseur in art to journey to the spot that he might behold the picture. While

of the Court and Other Poems. By Robert Bridges. 185 pp. New York: Macmillan and Co.

* *Poems*. By Langdon Elwyn Mitchell (John Philip Varley). 118 pp. \$1.25.—† *The Complete Works of John Greenleaf Whittier*. 542 pp. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin and Company.

‡ *Faber's Hymns*. 248 pp. \$1.25.—|| *The Light of Asia*. By Sir Edwin Arnold. 233 pp. 75 cts. New York: Thomas Y. Crowell & Company.

§ *Selections from Point Lace and Diamonds*. By George A. Baker. Illustrated by Moore Smith. 105 pp. 75 cts.—

¶ *Poems*. By James Russell Lowell. 337 pp. \$1.50. New York: Frederick A. Stokes Company.

** *A Patch of Pansies*. By J. Edmund V. Cooke. 89 pp.—

†† *Vashti—A Poem in Seven Books*. By John Brayshaw Kaye. 166 pp. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons.

there he saw a second revelation more wonderful than the first, that of the soul of a brother traveler with its intrinsic merit, which had been long concealed under the base coverings, the selfishness, the sins of life, and was now discovered by the same clear seeing eyes which had found the first picture. Such is the trend of a forcible sketch by Paul Bourget named "A Saint."*

If any one would know what social satire is and what is its power, he should read Molière. The great comic dramatist who knew so well how to turn the laugh on the foibles of society, did, perhaps, his best work in "The Misanthrope," "Le Bourgeois Gentilhomme," "Tartuffe," "Les Precieuses Ridicules," and "George Dandin." The translator though very free in her renderings has with a delicate art preserved the spirit of the original. These fine works are published in two attractive volumes † which are a fine expression of the bookmaker's art.

Daudet's "Tartarin on the Alps," ‡ the story of that bragging comical humbug who has furnished rich entertainment to so many readers has been revised in its translation and republished in a small handy volume with numerous illustrations.

"The Count of Monte Cristo" and "The Three Musketeers" || are doubtless the leading stories of Dumas, that prince among story-tellers, and the handsome volumes in which the new editions appear form a fine setting for the illustrious contents. Added value is given by their many illustrations, the work of leading artists.

A neat set of six volumes in blue covers and gilt tops put up in a box, comprises four others of the historical romances of Dumas, "The She-Wolves of Machecoul," "The Corsican Brothers," "The Whites and the Blues," and "The Companions of Jehu," the latter two works being classed as The Napoleon Romances. This Walter Scott of French literature, with his happy faculty of weaving historical incidents into the fancies of romance, throws into his multitudinous works a certain fascination which never allows him to become wearisome. The books are well illustrated with etchings, steel engravings, photogravures, and half tones.

* A Saint. Translated from Paul Bourget's "Pastels of Men," by Katharine Prescott Wormeley. 82 pp. \$1.00.—

† Molière. Translated by Katharine Prescott Wormeley. Two vols. 324+331 pp. \$1.50 per vol. Boston: Roberts Brothers.

‡ Tartarin on the Alps. With Illustrations. By Alphonse Daudet. 235 pp. 75 cts.—|| The Count of Monte Cristo. Two vols. 539+555 pp. \$3.00.—The Three Musketeers. Two vols. 373+355 pp. \$3.00. By Alexandre Dumas. New York: Thomas Y. Crowell & Company.

§ The She Wolves of Machecoul, to which is added The Corsican Brothers. Two vols. 571+580 pp.—The Whites and the Blues. Two vols. 416+439 pp.—The Companions of Jehu. Two vols. 300+349 pp. By Alexandre Dumas. \$1.25 per volume. Boston: Little, Brown, and Company.

Two works* on Napoleon by Mr. Masson have revealed many satisfactory and useful sketches of Napoleon in private life, and also a great amount of what deserves no better name than gossip. In spite of the author's plea in his well-elaborated introductions,—that in order thoroughly to know a person, to be able to make a complete estimate of his character, knowledge must be had of every phase of his life,—he cannot convince thinking readers that there was a shadow of necessity for much of the information he has detailed, especially in the volume treating of Napoleon as lover and husband. Many parts of it awaken disgust in the reader and add nothing whatever to the work as a character study in the large sense which it was the aim of the book to do. The author's style is agreeable, his ability is marked, and a careful winnowing would leave two valuable works.

The public life of Napoleon was very vividly narrated by Alexandre Dumas, but for some strange reason no English translation of it has ever been made until the very recent and admirable one by Mr. Larner.† In chapters full of movement the history is borne rapidly along through the different phases of that wonderful career. During Napoleon's early years of preparation, during his generalship, his reign as consul, and as emperor, during his fall and his days of exile, the interested reader traces his whole history. Great pains was taken to make the translation a literal one, so that it retains the original force and merit.

For the Young Easily taking the lead for artistic
Folks. beauty among the holiday books for the young is "Children of Colonial Days."* The full page pictures after paintings in water color by E. Percy Moran show a perfection of color seldom attained in reproduction, while the decorative borders of quaint and dainty children in monochrome by Elizabeth Tucker are done with rare skill.—A veritable treasury, † as its name implies, is one containing verses by Edith M. Thomas, Elizabeth S. Tucker, and Helen Gray Cone, besides short stories, fairy tales, and Mother Goose jingles. The hundred and forty vignette illustrations after Maud Humphrey are in that artist's well-known pleasing style.

"The Century Book for Young Americans" ‡

* Napoleon and the Fair Sex. By Frédéric Masson. 320 pp. \$2.00.—Napoleon at Home. Two vols. 198+248 pp. By Frédéric Masson. Translated by James E. Matthew. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Company.

† Napoleon. By Alexandre Dumas. Translated from the French by John B. Larner. 250 pp. \$1.50. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons.

* Children of Colonial Days. Stories and Verses by Elizabeth S. Tucker. 38 pp. \$2.00. † A Treasury of Stories, Jingles, and Rhymes. 251 pp. \$1.50. New York: Frederick A. Stokes Company.

‡ The Century Book for Young Americans. By Elbridge S.

shows "how a party of boys and girls who knew how to use their eyes and ears found out all about the government of the United States." The illustrations are numerous and excellent, and the story well told.—Thirty-one folk-stories of the Pueblos recounted by one who got them from the Indians themselves form the tempting feast offered in "The Man Who Married the Moon."* George Wharton Edwards furnishes the spirited illustrations.—A charmingly written account of the oddities of Holland occupies the first half of "The Land of Pluck."† The rest of the volume is filled with bright short stories by the same author, and the whole is pleasingly illustrated.—"When Life is Young"‡ is a collection of verse by the same author as the preceding, accompanied by the pictures made for them on their appearance in a juvenile magazine. The contrast between the crude wood cuts of a few years ago and the delicate sketches of to-day is a rather trying one for the wood cuts.—"Toinette's Philip" § is a charming story beautifully illustrated by Birch.—Fancy runs riot in Tudor Jenks' "Truthless Tales."§ The illustrations by Dan Beard and other popular artists depict admirably the whimsical ideas of the author.—¶ "The Brownies Around the World," the latest of the series of Brownie books, describes in picture and verse new adventures of these amusing little people, their trip across the Atlantic and their sight-seeing in the principal countries of Europe, Asia, and Africa.

A very bright and lovable little heroine is "Hope Benham,"** though perhaps a trifle dignified and self-contained for her age, and the story of her school life is an absorbing one. The illustrations by Frank T. Merrill accord well with the author's descriptions.

It is a pleasure to note that the demand for "Timothy's Quest" †† has called out a new edition of this little classic. There is a novel mingling of realism and idealism in the pictures by Herford.

The numerous illustrations of "The Farmer's Boy" ‡‡ are from photographs, the subjects being posed with a commendable lack of the stiffness that is often painful in such groupings. The vignetted half-tones are especially artistic. Well written

descriptions of life on a farm during the four seasons accompany the pictures. Heavy paper, gilt edges, and tasteful binding combine to form an acceptable gift-book.—That pretty idyl "Paul and Virginia,"* a popular favorite for over a hundred years, has been given a handsome setting in harmony with the chaste simplicity and elegance of the author's style. Of this story Bonaparte was in the habit of saying whenever he saw St. Pierre, "When do you mean to give us more Pauls and Virginias? You ought to give us some every six months."

The beautiful stories † of Wagner's operas as told to a little girl by her father, who sees the actors in the embers of the fireplace, cannot fail to delight an imaginative child. Truth, self-sacrifice, and constancy are among the lessons that may be learned therein.

The sweet songs of childhood that the great poets have sung have been collected and form a thoroughly good book ‡ for the little folks to read and reread. A classification of subjects, index of authors, and short biographical sketches are commendable features, but many of the illustrations are of rather poor quality.—The story of a Yankee waif among the Bluenoses § is told with considerable spirit and teaches incidentally lessons of manliness and generosity.

Four good books for a Sunday school library are "Following the Star," § "Godfrey Brenz," ¶ "The Little Lady of Lavender," § and "How John and I Brought up the Child."** The first is a story of the Wise Men of the East, the second deals with the sixteenth century persecution of "heretics," the third is a charming story of a wee winsome maid who might be a sister of little Lord Fauntleroy, so much sweetness and light does she shed about her, and the fourth, the winner of a prize of \$400 offered by the American Sunday School Union, shows how the problem of bringing up a child was wrought in a Christian home.

Christmas
Miscellany. "Between the Lights" †† is a religious day book, filled with thoughts suitable for the quiet twilight hour. The selections have been freely chosen from all sources, and will

Brooks. 249 pp. \$1.50.—* The Man Who Married the Moon, and Other Pueblo Indian Folk-Stories. By Charles F. Lummis. 240 pp. \$1.50.—† The Land of Pluck. By Mary Mapes Dodge. 313 pp. \$1.50. ‡ When Life is Young. By Mary Mapes Dodge. 255 pp. \$1.25.—§ Toinette's Philip. By Mrs. C. V. Jamison. 236 pp. \$1.50.—¶ Imaginations. Truthless Tales. By Tudor Jenks. 230 pp. \$1.50. ¶ The Brownies Around the World. By Palmer Cox. 144 pp. \$1.50. New York: The Century Company.

** Hope Benham. A Story for Girls. By Nora Perry. 322 pp. \$1.50. Boston: Little, Brown and Company.

†† Timothy's Quest. By Kate Douglas Wiggin. 259 pp. Boston and New York: Houghton, Mifflin and Company.

‡‡ The Farmer's Boy. Text and illustrations by Clifton John-

son. 116 pp. \$2.50.—* Paul and Virginia. By Bernardin St. Pierre. With a biographical sketch. Illustrated by Maurice Leloir. 174 pp. New York: D. Appleton and Company.

† The Wagner Story Book. By William Henry Frost. Illustrated. 245 pp. \$1.50. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons.

‡ Royal Echoes. Compiled by Julia A. Watkins. 304 pp.—§ Tan Pile Jim. By Freeman Ashley. Illustrated. 259 pp. Chicago: Laird & Lee.

¶ Following the Star. By Y. L. 249 pp. 90 cts. ¶ Godfrey Brenz. By Sarah J. Jones. 208 pp. 80 cts. § The Little Lady of Lavender. By Theodora C. Enalie. 320 pp. \$1.25. ** How John and I Brought up the Child. By Elizabeth Grinnell. 233 pp. 80 cts. Philadelphia: The American Sunday School Union.

†† Between the Lights. Compiled and arranged by Fanny B.

infuse courage, joy, and inspiration in the hearts of readers.—A companion volume is "At Dawn of Day"* a collection of thoughts fitted to help and strengthen one during the busy labors of the day. Many of the choicest gems of Christian thoughts are to be found in its pages.

A practical book for thoughtful men is "Religion and Business."† Each one of the short chapters is a strong, convincing sermon showing how closely interwoven, whether acknowledgment is made of the fact or not, are the affairs of secular and of religious life.

"Forty Witnesses to Success"‡ is an interesting book based upon the responses sent by eminent leaders to questions asked concerning the best methods of living. It is religious in its character and filled with thoughts that enrich and ennoble life.

Among the peculiarly interesting characters of American literature stands Lucy Larcom. In her quiet, thoughtful life mental images took precedence of all others and their expression in poetry made her name widely known. This partial acquaintance makes a book § giving an account of her life and extracts from her letters and journals, revealing the personality of the woman, very welcome. A large reading was awaiting such a work as Mr. Addison now offers, which work proves a most satisfactory one.

One would surely look long for a more interesting guide through England than Mr. Davis has proved himself to be in "Our English Cousins." § Keenly observant, he detects everything of an interesting nature, and his facile pen readily adapts itself to the variety of scenes and incidents described. An exciting political meeting, a jolly festival or frolic, a glimpse into direful poverty, are some of the changing scenes to which he leads his readers.

"Five perplexing phases of the boy question" are considered in a bright work called "Before He is Twenty." ¶ Each phase, in the hands of an able writer who has already won recognition as being especially able in the line treated, is presented in a forcible, novel, and effective manner. Parents can gather from these pages many hints which will help them decide as to the perplexities arising concerning home government.

Bates. 441 pp. \$1.25.—* At Dawn of Day. Compiled and arranged by Jeanie A. Bates Greenough. 444 pp. \$1.75.—† Religion and Business. By Henry A. Stimson. 149 pp. 75 cents.—‡ Forty Witnesses to Success. Talks to Young Men. By Charles Townsend. 148 pp. 75 cents New York: Anson D. F. Randolph and Company.

§ Lucy Larcom, Life, Letters, and Diary. By Daniel Dulany Addison. 295 pp. Boston and New York: Houghton, Mifflin and Company.

§ Our English Cousins. By Richard Harding Davis. 228 pp. New York: Harper & Brothers.

¶ Before He is Twenty. By Robert J. Burdette, Frances Hodgson Burnett, Edward W. Bok, Mrs. Burton Harrison, Mrs. Lyman Abbott. With portraits of the authors. 104 pp.

A book that will appeal to mothers' hearts especially and suggest many helpful things to mothers' minds is a small volume entitled "At Mother's Knee."**

"The Sistine Madonna, a Christmas Meditation,"† is an appreciative study of this "the most beautiful picture in the world," and a reverent and beautiful inquiry concerning the meaning of the lives of the Mother and her holy Child.

Mrs. Bolton has added to the list of her useful and popular biographies a new one containing short graphic sketches of Napoleon Bonaparte, Horatio Nelson, John Bunyan, Thomas Arnold, Wendell Phillips, Henry Ward Beecher, Charles Kingsley, General Sherman, Charles H. Spurgeon, and Phillips Brooks. Under the title "Famous Leaders Among Men"‡ she throws these characters into one classification; and in her treatment brings out distinctly the individual characteristics of each.

A year book filled with the best thoughts to be gathered in literature concerning the conduct of life is entitled Golden Words for Daily Counsel."§

"Character Studies"§ comprises brief memorial sketches and recollections of Edward Irving, Anna Jameson, Washington Irving, Longfellow, Bryant, and Cogswell. Sympathetic in their nature, they recall many of the good things said by others about these characters and throw some new side lights upon them.

"The Use of Life"¶ is a book of short chapters giving careful consideration to the most important themes. The deductions drawn in every case from the logical argument advanced are just optimistic enough in character to make them serve as impulsive motives in the hearts of others.

In "Providential Epochs,"** Dr. Bristol sketches in strong, and rapid outlines four of the pivotal eras in the history of the world—the Renaissance, the Reformation, the discovery of America, and the settlement of our country. About a few leading geniuses, who stand as the representatives of their times, the "history-making personalities of the age," he weaves the story of the period. Accurate in detail, rich in imagery, commanding in style, the

75 cents.—† At Mother's Knee. By J. M. P. Otis, D. D. 175 pp. \$1.00. New York: Fleming H. Revell Company.

* The Sistine Madonna. By Amory H. Bradford. 211 pp. New York: Fords, Howard, & Hulbert.

§ Famous Leaders Among Men. By Sarah Knowles Bolton. 404 pp. \$1.50.—* Golden Words for Daily Counsel. Selected and arranged by Anna Harris Smith. Edited by Huntington Smith. 372 pp. New York: Thomas Y. Crowell & Co.

* Character Studies. By the Author of "Salad for the Solitary and the Social," "Passtime Papers," etc. 177 pp. \$1.00. New York: Thomas Whittaker.

¶ The Use of Life. By the Right Hon. Sir John Lubbock, Bart. M. P. 316 pp. \$1.25. New York: Macmillan and Co.

† Providential Epochs. By Frank M. Bristol, D. D. 269 pp. \$1.25. Cincinnati: Cranston & Curtis. New York: Hunt & Eaton.

separate articles—originally given as lectures—appeal alike to profound learning and to popular favor.

As one of the valuable results of recent anthropological study a series of books on the subject is to be published. The first one* in the list has already been issued and is devoted to woman's part of the works of the world during its earlier history. Its revelations make very evident the fact that the term "the weaker sex" as applied to them could only have been coined in modern times. The part these far away ancestors of the present race of women took in all fields of labor made them emphatically the burden bearers of their time. What they accomplished, how they worked, how they were rewarded, and the fact that most modern institutions are in reality founded upon the work of primitive women, are clearly shown. The work is well illustrated.

The International Teachers' Edition of the Bible,† which is distinguished as the "Self-Explanatory Reference Bible," seems to have added the last possible improvement in the line of ready helps to the study of the Word. Embodying all the remarkable features of other editions—the special study of the books of the Bible, the history of the Bible, the helps to Bible study, the concordance, the maps, etc.—this edition has also, instead of merely indicating references to other allied passages of Scripture, printed in full the verses themselves between the double columns of the pages. In clear type, of convenient size, with its flexible covers, there is nothing wanting which the bookmaker's art can supply.

For a fuller announcement of books and a more complete description of Holiday publications, see pages 225 to 236.

* Woman's Share in Primitive Culture By Otis Tufton Mason, A. M., Ph. D. 295 pp. \$1.50. New York: D. Appleton and Company.

† The International Teachers' Edition of the Holy Bible. \$9.00. New York: International Bible Agency.

BOOKS RECEIVED.

D. APPLETON AND COMPANY, NEW YORK.

Radcliffe, A. G. Schools and Masters of Sculpture. \$3.00.
Hope, Anthony. The God in the Car. A Novel. 50 cts.
Seawell, M. Elliot. Decatur and Somers.
Mclay, Edgar S., A. M. History of the United States Navy. 2 vols. \$7.00.
Stoddard, William O. Chris, the Model Maker. \$1.50.
Schultz, Jeanne. Madeleine's Rescue. \$1.00.
Butterworth, Ezekiah. The Patriot Schoolmaster. \$1.50.
Stagg, A. Alonso and Henry L. Williams. Treatise on American Football. \$1.25.
Huxley, Thomas H. Evolution and Ethics. \$1.25.
Davidson, Thomas. The Education of the Greek People. \$1.50.

THE CENTURY COMPANY, NEW YORK.

Muir, John. The Mountains of California. \$1.50.

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CHARLES SCRIBNER'S SONS, NEW YORK.

Porter, J. Hampden. Wild Beasts. \$2.00.
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Kingsley, Henry. The Recollections of Geoffrey Hamlyn. 2 vols. \$2.00.

The Life and Letters of Charles Loring Brace. Edited by his Daughter. \$3.50.

HARPER & BROTHERS, NEW YORK.

Lloyd, Henry Demarest. Wealth Against Commonwealth.

JOHNS HOPKINS PRESS, BALTIMORE.

Public Treatment of Pauperism. Edited by John H. Finley, Ph. D.

G. P. PUTNAM'S SONS, NEW YORK.

Kelley, James P. The Law of Service.
Social England. Edited by H. D. Traill, D. C. L. 2 vols.
Ropes, John Codman. The Story of the Civil War. \$1.50.
About Women. Chosen and Arranged by Rose Porter. \$1.00.
Hosmer, James K. How Thankful Was Bewitched. 50 cts.

F. TENNYSON NEELY, CHICAGO AND NEW YORK.

Zola, Émile. Lourdes. \$1.25.

ROBERTS BROTHERS, BOSTON.

Partridge, William Ordway. Art for America. \$1.00.
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Coolidge, Susan. Not Quite Eighteen. \$1.25.

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Brown, Anna Robertson, Ph. D. The Victory of Our Faith. 35 cts.

Maeterlinck, Maurice. Pélidas and Mélisande. Translated by Irving Winslow. \$1.00.

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Clark, Rev. Francis E., D. D. Our Journey Around the World. W. J. SHUEY, DAYTON, O.

Drury, Rev. M. R., D. D. The Pastor's Companion. 75 cts.

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Wright, William Burnet. Master and Men. \$1.25.
Deland, Margaret. Philip and His Wife. \$1.25.

Scudder, Horace E. Childhood in Literature and Art. \$1.25.

HUNT & EATON, NEW YORK; CRANSTON & CURTIS, CINCINNATI.

Corn Flower Stories. 6 vols. Illustrated. \$1.75.

Wright, John W. Christ in Myth and Legend. 50 cts.

Roberts, Charles G. D. The Raid from Beauséjour. \$1.00.

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Potts, James H., D. D. The Lord's Sabbath Day. 25 cts.

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Hurlbut, Jesse L., and Robert R. Doherty. Illustrative Notes on the Sunday-School Lessons. \$1.25.

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Jerome, Irene E. The Jerome Banners. 50 cts. each.

FLEMING H. REVELL COMPANY, NEW YORK.

Horton, Robert F., M. A., D. D. The Cartoons of St. Mark.

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Herron, George D., D. D. The Christian Society. \$1.00.

Bruen, Louisa Jay. Poems for Young Persons. 75 cts.

ANSON D. F. RANDOLPH AND COMPANY, NEW YORK.

Markwick, W. Fisher. Fundamentals. 75 cts.

Harland, Marion. The Royal Road. \$1.50.

JAMES POTT & CO., NEW YORK.

Abreast of the Times. A Course of Sermons on Social Subjects.

FREDERICK A. STOKES CO., NEW YORK.

Tucker, E. S. A Year of Paper Dolls. 75 cts.

The Old Woman in the Shoe Calendar. 50 cts.

The Polar Bear Calendar. 50 cts.

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THE MEDICINAL PROPERTIES AND CURATIVE POWERS OF BUFFALO LITHIA WATER.

PURE water at ordinary temperature is devoid of taste and smell, transparent and nearly colorless. It is widely distributed in nature, permeating the soil and most of the known rocks, and is *remarkable* for its solvent powers, that is, its capacity to unite with or take up into itself various solids, liquids, and gaseous substances. Hence, pure water, except as an artificial product, is unknown, and all natural waters have their characters modified by the presence of foreign matters. That which falls from the clouds as rain or snow-water holds in solution, besides the gases nitrogen, oxygen, and carbonic acid dissolved from the atmosphere, small portions of ammonia and nitrous compounds, and a minute but variable amount of mineral matters which were previously suspended in the air.

After falling on the earth these same waters become further impregnated with foreign ingredients. From decaying vegetation they take up two kinds of substances; first the organic product of decomposition—the so called soluble organic matters; and second, the mineral matters which form an essential part of all vegetation, but are for the most part liberated in soluble forms during the slow decay.

When the atmospheric waters sink into the soil, they undergo still further changes, dependent upon the nature of the strata through which they pass. Hence the ordinary waters of wells and springs, supplied by this filtration, differ very much in their composition from superficial waters.

Besides these reactions which depend upon the mineral matters previously dissolved by the atmospheric waters, there are others, not less important, due to the direct action of the water and its dissolved gases on the solid rocks, in virtue of which the silicated minerals of these are decomposed with the liberation in a soluble form, of certain of their elements. In this way large quantities of alkalis, lime, and magnesia are set free and are dissolved in the form of carbonates, together with a considerable portion of silica. This process of decaying has been going on from remote ages, and has effected the decomposition and disinte-

gration of vast portions of the crystalline rocks, while immense amounts of soluble matter have been added to the waters of the earth.

Pressure also exercises an important influence on the solvent power of water, as also does heat: Some substances, insoluble in cold water, possess a considerable degree of solubility at 212 degrees; while others, apparently insoluble at this point, enter into solution in water when heated under pressure to temperatures considerably higher.

With this explanation, the reader will better understand what is to follow with reference to the medicinal properties and curative powers of mineral springs.

Mineral springs are those which are impregnated with minerals to such a degree as to possess medicinal properties. They differ from ordinary springs by the large volume of gases and the mineral ingredients held in solution in these waters, and the peculiar smell, taste, and sometimes color imparted by the solution. The thousands of mineral springs in foreign countries and in our own which have become fashionable health-restoring resorts, are not the result of man's ingenuity, nor can man always explain how or whence they come. Some issue from the earth like vapors, foaming and steaming; others with a continuous or intermittent noise, gurgling and hissing. Some break in boiling heat through a crust of ice and snow, and some issue with almost icy coldness from many a luxuriant vegetation.

The ancients ascribed supernatural properties to those springs, and their priests placed their sanctuaries near them. Such places were provided not only with baths, hospitals, and medical schools, but with theaters and other resorts for amusement, and were designed both for worship and for the cure of the sick. Philostratus says that the Greek soldiers wounded in the battle of Caicus were healed by the waters of Agamemnon's spring near Smyrna. Josephus relates that Herod sought relief from his terrible disease in the thermal springs Callirrhoe; and we learn from Horace how the Romans used the springs of Tiberias,

and had their favorite health resorts in the mountains and along the coast.

Many theories, both natural and supernatural, have been advanced by philosophers in all ages to account for the curative properties of mineral springs; and it is still admitted that in connection with such waters, nature exhibits phenomena in various parts of the world, which, in accordance with the theories of natural philosophy, are susceptible of no explanation.

It might be supposed, at first thought, that the therapeutic action of mineral water could be accurately determined by a study of its chemical ingredients. Yet so many complex and varied phenomena are connected with this subject that the best evidence of its therapeutical power is that obtained from clinical observation. Careful experiments have shown that water can dissolve minute quantities of the minerals known to be most difficult of solution, and physicians recognize that substances thus held in natural solution, as found in the Natural Mineral Waters, have a much more marked effect upon the system than many times the quantity given in a dried form.

We do not fully appreciate the fact that water is the universal solvent and that when charged with medicinal materials it courses through the whole system, applying these remedies, held in solution, to the diseased surfaces and tissues. While we know that all the materials found in medicinal waters, being in solution must be absorbed with the water and carried to all parts of the system, yet a careful study of the clinical results obtained from the use of these mineral waters warrants the statement that there are effects produced which cannot be explained from a theoretical standpoint nor by the analysis of the waters. The following statement of Dr. Hunter McGuire, Pres. and Prof. of Surgery, in the College of Physicians and Surgeons, Richmond, Va., expressed with reference to the Buffalo Lithia Waters, well illustrates this fact: "Whatever may be the published analysis of this water, I know from the constant use of it personally and in my practice that the results obtained from its use are far beyond those which would be warranted by the analysis given. I am of the opinion that it either contains some wonderful remedial agent as yet undiscovered by medical science, or its elements are so delicately combined in Nature's laboratory, that they defy the utmost skill of the chemist to solve the

secret of their power."

These celebrated springs lie quietly among the hills of Southern Virginia, several hundred feet above the level of the sea, and have attained a reputation for the beneficial and curative powers of their waters in a greater variety of human maladies than any known mineral water of the American continent, rivaling even the famed waters of Europe.

The medicinal properties of these waters have been known for nearly a century. The springs are said to have received their name from the prevalence of buffaloes in this region many years ago. The Lithia is a more modern addition made after the discovery of Spring No. 2, which contains Lithia, a new alkali found in a rare mineral called petalite, an ingredient of inestimable value, seldom occurring in mineral waters.

It is this spring of which General Roger A. Pryor wrote: "For many years I have suffered severely from dyspepsia and insomnia, but after drinking the water for six months I found myself *entirely relieved* of these painful maladies. To no other cause, beside the use of the water, can I attribute my recovery, nor do I know of any auxiliary agent that conducted to my cure."

It was during the year 1873 that the wonderful Spring No. 2 was first brought to notice, and an analysis of its waters made known. Honorable Roscoe Conkling, speaking of the water from this spring, writes as follows: "Buffalo Lithia Water was first brought to my notice last year while suffering from severe malarial disorder. I say 'malarial' because the doctors said so. After trying other remedies, without benefit, I found prompt relief from the water, and when there has been any return of my unpleasant symptoms, it has always relieved me. Several to whom I have recommended it make like favorable report of it. *I am a strong believer in its power as an 'antidote' to the 'acids,' which it neutralizes.* I have pleasure in saying this, and shall continue to advise my neighbors and acquaintances to try the water." As a tonic, alterative, diuretic, and anti-dyspeptic, it is unequaled, and, what is more remarkable, its reputation suffers no disparagement or detriment from time, trial, or competition but has constantly advanced and maintained all the virtues and efficacy claimed for its waters. These waters are considered equally efficacious at all seasons, and shipped all through the year. The gaseous contents are very small

in comparison with those in most mineral waters, and, as a necessary consequence, preserves its properties, when bottled and exported, to a much greater extent. The waters from all the springs are clear as crystal, cool, pleasant, and exhilarating, as they issue from the earth, and have but little, if anything, in taste or odor to distinguish them from ordinary water. The uniform flow of each spring is not affected by continual rains or severe droughts, nor does their temperature vary in the extremes of hot or cold weather; this showing their sources are far removed from the surface of the earth.

Why can not these waters be manufactured if druggists possess the ingredients? is a question often asked. Now, a careful examination of the analysis of these celebrated waters will reveal the source of their virtues. Certain constituent properties predominate, and are presented in the best medium for administration ever accomplished by the medical fraternity or any knowledge of pharmacy. The imitation of natural mineral waters is sometimes effected by the aid of science; but there seems to be always some quality wanting, which lessens their alterative and curative properties and prevents their commanding popular confidence. It is as impossible to manufacture a water to equal the natural as it is to manufacture a wine equal to nature's product.

Although a knowledge of the chemical composition of a mineral water may furnish some slight clue to its medical qualities, yet no just or satisfactory conclusion can be arrived at as to what classes of diseases it is particularly adapted until a fair trial of every species of malady.

The presence of iron in water indicates a tonic property, but its other chemical ingredients may greatly predominate, and so modify and pervert its tonic powers as to render it wholly useless for such purposes. Besides, it is a well-known fact in pharmacy that in compounding medicines their specific qualities are frequently destroyed and a medicine obtained differing in its action on the human system from any of the articles which enter into its composition. It is, therefore, almost impossible to judge *a priori* of the medical qualities of any water merely from its analysis. The most powerful of all the remedial agents contained in it may elude the tests of the chemists, or wholly escape during the analytical process. The best evidence of its curative power is its salutary and

healthful action on the human system. But while, practically, very little is gained by a knowledge of the chemical composition of a mineral water, it furnishes, at least, a sort of starting-point from which we may act with more confidence in investigating its character as a remedial agent.

The constant use of this water by hundreds of physicians, in a great variety of diseases, has afforded many opportunities of testing its efficacy. Combining in its nature the quadruple powers of tonic, diuretic, sudorific, and aperient, it has been prescribed and freely used in every conceivable species of malady in which medicines belonging to these several classes are supposed to be indicated.

As a tonic and diuretic it was probably not surpassed by any mineral water in the United States, and when drunk at the Springs, or used in the household with reference to these qualities it rarely disappoints the expectations of the invalid. For Kidney and Bladder diseases, Gout, Dyspepsia, Rheumatism, and Nervous Debility, the value of these waters has been long recognized by the medical profession, and hundreds of sufferers from these diseases have found in these waters not only relief but permanent cure. As the valuable properties of the waters are not affected by transportation, the sufferer at his home, as well as the sojourner at the Springs, may avail himself of their beneficent aid. We give a few from the many endorsements of men of high standing in the medical profession, who have used these waters for ten years in their practice.

Dr. William A. Hammond, of New York, Surgeon-General of United States Army (retired), Professor of diseases of the mind and nervous system in the University of New York, etc., says: "I have for some time made use of the Buffalo Lithia Water in cases of affections of the Nervous System, complicated with Bright's Disease of the Kidneys, or with a Gouty Diathesis. The results have been eminently satisfactory. Lithia has for many years been a favorite with me in like cases, but the Buffalo Water certainly acts better than any extemporaneous solution of the Lithia salts, and is, moreover, better borne by the stomach. I also often prescribe it in those cases of *Cerebral Hyperoemia*, resulting in over mental work—in which the condition called Nervous Dyspepsia exists,—and generally with marked benefit. As a matter of prime importance it

is not to be forgotten that the composition of the Buffalo Lithia Water is such, and the experience of its use so complete, that no doubt exists of its great power, not only as a solvent for calculi already in the bladder, but of the diseases of such calculi existing in the blood."

Dr. J. Marion Sims, of New York, says: "I have used in my practice the Buffalo Lithia Water, Spring No. 2, for two years past, and have, in many cases, found it highly efficacious."

G. Halstead Boyland, A.M., M.D., of the Faculty of Paris and University of Leipsic; Formerly Professor in the Baltimore Medical College; Late Surgeon in French Army; from "New York Medical Journal," August 20, 1887, says: "In Bright's Disease of the Kidneys acute or chronic, Buffalo Lithia Water, Spring No. 2, is, in my experience, without a rival, whether in the Parenchymatous form or Interstitial Nephritis. In cases in which the albumen in the urine reached as high as fifty per cent, I have known it under a course of this water gradually diminish and finally disappear."

Dr. Harvey L. Byrd, of Baltimore, President and Professor of Obstetrics and Diseases of Women and Children, in the Baltimore Medical College, formerly Professor of Practical Medicine, etc., says: "I have witnessed the best results from the action of Buffalo Lithia Water, Spring No. 2, in Chronic Gout, Rheumatic Gout, Rheumatism, Gravel, and Stone in the Bladder, and I do not hesitate to express the opinion that in all diseases depending upon or having their origin in Uric Acid Diathesis, it is unsurpassed, if, indeed, it is equaled, by any water thus far known to the profession."

"It is an admirable general Tonic and Restorative, increasing the appetite, promoting Digestion, and invigorating the gen-

eral health. It is powerfully Antacid, and especially efficacious in what is commonly known as Acid Dyspepsia. It is strongly commended to a very large class of sufferers by a peculiar power as a Nervous Tonic and Exhilarant, which makes it exceedingly valuable, where there is nothing to contraindicate its use, in all cases where Nervous Depression is a symptom."

Dr. William B. Towels, Professor of Anatomy and Materia Medica in the Medical Department of the University of Virginia: "Buffalo Lithia Springs No. 2 belongs to the Alkaline, or perhaps to the Alkaline-Saline Class, for it has proved far more efficacious in many diseased conditions than any of the simple Alkaline waters."

"I feel no hesitancy whatever in saying that in Gout, Rheumatic Gout, Rheumatism, Stone in the Bladder, and in all Diseases of Uric Acid Diathesis, I know of no remedy at all comparable to it."

"Its effects are marked in causing a disappearance of albumen from the urine. In a single case of Bright's Disease of the Kidneys, I witnessed decided beneficial results from its use, and from its action in this case I should have great confidence in it as a remedy in certain stages of this disease. In Dyspepsia, especially that form of it in which there is an excessive production of acid during the process of nutrition, in some of the peculiar affections of women, notably in Suppression of the Menses, and in Chronic Malarial Poisoning, etc., I have found it highly efficacious."

Buffalo Lithia Water is for sale by druggists generally, or can be obtained direct from the Springs in cases of one dozen half-gallon bottles, price \$5.00 f. o. b. Descriptive pamphlets may be had free by addressing Thomas F. Good, Proprietor, Buffalo Lithia Springs, Va.

